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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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CONCERNING DEFENSE

EDUCATORS in our country, like its citizens in other walks of life, have a great stake in the defense of the nation in these difficult times, and they, like others, have been considering how defense may best be achieved. Discussion as it affects education may be thought of as falling in two main lines: that of military defense and that of fostering as never before understanding of, and belief in, the democratic process and way of life.

To achieve an adequate military defense, many educators have joined in the movement to urge conscription. At the same time, many other thoughtful persons are vigorously opposing this course. The Committee on Militarism in Education, whose position in related matters has previously been reported in these pages, has sponsored "A Declaration against Conscription," which has been signed by hundreds of educators, clergymen, and other American leaders and which probably puts the case against compulsory military service as well as it can be put. We do not undertake to abstract the declaration but quote it in full.

The American people are today being deluged by propaganda for military conscription in peacetime. Sincere and distinguished as many of the proponents of conscription may be, and plausible as many of their contentions may seem, we, the undersigned, urge the American people and their representatives in Congress to deliberate with sober caution before permitting such an unprecedented innovation to become a part of our national life.

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In our judgment military conscription in peacetime smacks of totalitarianism, and we are convinced that its adoption would be highly dangerous to the spirit and traditions of American democracy. The reasons upon which we support this conviction are as follows:

First, the essential idea underlying military conscription is the major premise of every dictatorship and all totalitarianism. It is the assumption that the individual citizen is but a pawn in the hands of unlimited state power. Conscription has always been abhorrent to free men because it is, in effect, a seizure of a man's body, time, and service by force and under threat of heavy penalty. For generations millions of Europeans have fled their native countries and become loyal and devoted American citizens in order to enjoy, among other things, our freedom from conscription. Universal military service has been and is today the chief weapon by which dictators suppress free conscience among their people, inculcate them with the false ideals of chauvinistic nationalism, and indoctrinate them with belief in the superiority of brute force over morals and ideas. The adoption of conscription among Americans will be the opening wedge for the totalitarian dogma that individual citizens are pawns of the state from birth until death, without any rights which those in positions of power are bound to respect. Americans must not delude themselves with the belief that their democracy will remain unscathed if we adopt the essentially antidemocratic processes which have worked such havoc abroad.

Second, we consider that peacetime conscription is in itself a flagrant negation of democracy. We reject as transparent sophistry the contention that conscription under the name of "selective service" is democratic and that voluntary military service is undemocratic. The "equality" that conscription makes for is akin to the "equality" which prevails among regimented galley slaves. It is no more democratic than any other form of involuntary servitude. Our American conception of democracy signifies vastly more than mere equality, for it also includes the great concepts of liberty and freedom for the individual. Furthermore, we deny that conscription can be justified by the assertion that it prevails in such democracies as England, Sweden, and Switzerland. The conditions we face in United States are in many respects widely different from, and not comparable to, those prevailing in European nations. For this reason valid conceptions of American democracy and military service must be derived from American history and tradition, not from contemporary European practices. In our view, peacetime conscription and American democracy are quite incompatible.

Third, the adoption of military conscription in peacetime would be a radical departure from historic American tradition. Never before in American history has it been thought necessary to resort to peacetime conscription for purposes of defense. This fact has been one of the truly glorious traditions of our American democracy; in common with most Americans we take profound pride in it, and we deny that the time has now come to abandon this feature of our national life because of the events in Europe, the gravity of which we well recognize. We

are confident that the defense purposes enumerated in the Constitution—"to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasion"—can still be met and effectively discharged without resort to peacetime conscription. As ardently concerned for the safety of our beloved Republic as any advocate of universal service can possibly be, we reject the suggestion that to preserve American democracy we must embrace the worst feature of the totalitarian regimes. We deny that free Americans must now, in the name of freedom, submit to peacetime conscription and thereby become regimented vassals of the national state.

Finally, we oppose conscription because of the disruption it will cause in our American way of life, and also because we question its necessity and wisdom as a defense measure. The military regimentation of the entire man power of our nation will inevitably result in widespread dislocation in business, industry, agriculture, and higher education; and it may prove unnecessary and ineffectual from a military standpoint. Conscription would have been unnecessary in 1917 if we had been raising a force for the defense of our territory rather than an army of five million men for service in Europe. Today the asserted need is for substantial expansion in our army, navy, and air corps. If the personnel need is for highly trained permanent forces sufficient in number to man expertly the new weapons as they are produced, we contend this need can best be met by voluntary enlistments under pay schedules sufficiently attractive to induce the required numbers to enrol. By such a procedure it may well be that the required enlistments could be obtained before the new weapons themselves are ready. This solution for the asserted need would seem to us to be vastly preferable to the alternative of organizing huge forces of partially trained civilians. It would be free of totalitarian semblance, as it would be in keeping with our democratic traditions and conceptions. Moreover, it would be based on a recognition of the military lesson being taught on European battlefields—that comparatively small forces of highly trained soldier-mechanics, properly equipped, can defeat many times their number of partially trained civilian conscripts regardless of how courageous the latter may be.

For these reasons, and for others, we appeal to all our fellow Americans who have a zealous regard for the preservation of their democratic institutions to identify themselves with the cause represented in this declaration.

Whether opposition to conscription will prevail may depend on the turn of events within a few weeks of this writing. The question may be settled before this comment finds its way into print.

Current interest of educators in improving the national defense through increasing appreciation of the democratic process and way of life may be illustrated in the general theme announced for the twentieth anniversary of American Education Week. This theme is "Education for the Common Defense," and the successive subordi-

nate themes for the seven days of the week, beginning Sunday, November 10, are "Enriching Spiritual Life," "Strengthening Civic Loyalties," "Financing Public Education," "Developing Human Resources," "Safeguarding Natural Resources," "Perpetuating Individual Liberties," and "Building Economic Security." This interest is illustrated again in a statement on *Education and the Defense of American Democracy* by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators. Representative of the content and tenor of this twenty-three-page statement are the following paragraphs.

American education faces a momentous decision. If it so chooses, it can continue in the well-worn paths of accustomed practice. But it can, if it will, come to grips with the needs of the hour and direct its vast resources to the task of increasing the civic understanding, the loyalties, and the intellectual competence of millions of citizens, with speed and efficiency matched to the exigencies of the time. Every secondary school and college in the nation can, without delay, become a citizens' study center, without interfering with its regular program. Teaching personnel can be organized, use of buildings scheduled, and library services arranged to provide leadership, places of meeting, and study materials for adult and youth groups. Services of libraries, churches, radio stations, and many other agencies can be enlisted to co-operate in every community. Leaders can be quickly trained, with the assistance of those most experienced in conducting public discussion.

Prompt action and sacrificial service on the part of educators are the conditions of achievement. The educational system as it now stands, with its strengths and its imperfections, must be used to the full. Extra efforts during the emergency can, for a time, largely offset defects of organization, finance, or program. Some personnel and some funds can be diverted from customary uses to meet the more pressing needs. Voluntary service of incalculable value can be rendered by thousands of administrators and teachers while continuing their usual work. If American education responds at once and demonstrates its competence to lead in strengthening the nation's moral defenses, it will be possible to give serious attention to means of providing the effective organization, adequate support, and equalization of opportunity required for the long pull ahead.

There is no national minister of propaganda to compel the educators of America to render the services described in this statement. There are no secret police to see that they conform to authoritarian edicts. There is no harsh punishment prescribed for those who fail to do their part. These services will be given voluntarily, in response to need rather than to command, and as a contribution of free education to the defense of a free country. This Commission has faith

that educators will respond to the nation's call to a heroic task, and will help America prove that in time of crisis this nation can act promptly, efficiently, and wisely, without departing from the fundamentals of democracy.

SIX-MAN FOOTBALL FOR THE INTRAMURAL PROGRAM

IN PREVIOUS issues the *School Review* has drawn upon writings describing and advocating six-man football for interscholastic athletics in small secondary schools. One may judge, from a recent article in the *Sierra Educational News*, that the game is no less suitable for intramural programs in large schools. The article is by Sterling S. Winans, instructor of physical education in the Santa Barbara (California) High School, who reports experiences during the 1939 season. We quote the brief article in full for such information as it may supply persons who may wish to consider or to try such a program.

The old question—"Aw, can't we play tackle?"—which has bombarded boys' physical-education instructors, has at last been answered for over one hundred boys at Santa Barbara High School by, "Sure, come around at 2:30 P.M. We'd like to have you!"

This is in addition, of course, to some fifty boys of gifted athletic ability who do a "fair-to-middlin'" job of representing the Olive and Gold in the interscholastic competition of southern California.

The average boy has yearned for the thrill of a rugged contact game as played by a squad of his more highly skilled classmates, but his parents have shivered at his substitution of the "sand-lot" variety in which the playing surface is not what it should be, equipment is nil, competition is unbalanced, instruction and supervision lacking, and the safety factors add up to zero.

The boys' physical-education department, headed by Clarence Schutte, undertook the organization of an intramural six-man football league at the beginning of the fall semester, in place of a Sophomore football team with a schedule of interschool contests. A regular instructor was assigned to the activity as well as a practice teacher from State Teachers College.

Two factors, among others already mentioned, made this venture possible. The turfing of an auxiliary field provided three football fields, each eighty yards long (twenty yards less than specified in the six-man football rules) and forty yards wide, with ample space between and around them.

The second factor was a supply of football equipment to adequately provide for eighty boys, including pants, shoulder pads, colored jerseys, and helmets. This was possible because of unusual gate receipts from a community that likes to watch good football on Saturday and takes joy in seeing \$2,000 or so turning "over and over" on the playing fields each afternoon during the week.

The maintenance department of the city schools installed six sets of white removable goal posts and constructed three "down-number" boxes and three "yardage line-markers" in order that three games might be played simultaneously. The fields were marked out every Monday morning during the playing season by the caretaker of the stadium.

The six-man football rules have done a great deal to make this game a suitable intramural activity. In addition to limiting the number of men to almost half that of the interscholastic game, the rules allow any man to be eligible for a forward pass. Since the offensive team may not advance the ball beyond the line of scrimmage until a forward or a lateral pass has been thrown, there are plenty of passes, and the thrill of the unexpected is added as the defensive team is permitted to advance a fumble, contrary to the eleven-man rules.

A premium is placed on kicking: a field goal scores four points, and a successful try-for-point after a touchdown scores two points if the conversion is by means of a drop or place kick. Fifteen yards must be gained in a series of four downs.

A preliminary organization and training period of three weeks was necessary before even a practice round could be played. During this time equipment was issued, considerable time devoted to a general body-building "warm-up" drill (also used before each game and between halves), and instruction and practice were given in fundamentals—particularly blocking, tackling, and falling on the ball.

Emphasis was placed on the safety factors in the contact elements of the game: "Keep your eyes open," "Keep the head up," "Pull in your neck," and "Relax when you fall." Plenty of time was spent on eight movable "dummies" when they were not in use by the varsity squad. In this new situation, captains were picked by the instructor. Each one chose his squad of eight men and selected a team name.

Teams were given instructions in how to shift to several formations: single and double "spread," "T" formations, and punt formation, but captains and teams were urged to devise their own "shifts" and plays.

Nine eight-man squads were organized, and an additional squad was added after the mimeographed schedule was given out to the players. The extra men on each squad provided for absence or possible injury of a player. An official board of directors was elected to assist in the governing of the league. By playing three games on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday and two games on Tuesday and Thursday, two complete rounds were played by Thanksgiving. Participation in this activity served as a substitute for required physical education; however, approximately one-half of the boys [participating] were enrolled in some other physical-education class or in R.O.T.C.

One hundred and twelve boys participated this first season although only eighty could be equipped at any one time. As a player found that he had to drop out for one reason or another, his suit was immediately checked out to an appli-

cant at the top of the waiting list which was always full. Sophomores, Juniors, or Seniors were eligible for play.

The officiating each night was handled by three teams not scheduled to play and was surprising in its quality. The score-keeper's report of each game was posted for one day on the bulletin board, and a copy was sent to the newspaper. The local paper was generous in publicizing the results of the games and the team standings each day. This was due in part to the fact that information was submitted in a concise form which could be easily used by the newspaper staff.

Certain special events through the season helped to build the morale of the league. Among these was an official "opening" ceremony at the first set of league games, at which local school officials aided the boys in a proper "send-off." The teams played an exhibition game for a neighboring elementary school outside the city, and two other teams provided the half-time entertainment at one of the high-school varsity games.

A night exhibition was the nucleus of a P.T.A. program. Members of the boys' cooking classes helped to stage a "super-bean-feed" Thanksgiving week to finish off the season in the approved style. Music, speeches, football movies, and balloting for first and second all-star teams made a worth-while evening.

It is not possible to state definitely the outcome of this activity, nor will it be. For one thing, this is the first season of this activity. There was a keen interest among the boys. The sportsmanship was a noticeable characteristic. Team spirit and the "game situation" livened the pace of group instruction and achievement. There was a definite improvement in play. The games were high-scoring contests; the score of one game was forty-one to twenty, and the team that won the game was twenty points behind at the beginning of the second quarter.

In some seventy-five games among inexperienced boys, injuries were expected, but in this respect the outcome was more than satisfactory. There were two injuries that may be called serious: a dislocated knee sustained by one player during a "still" tackle in early season instruction and a broken clavicle during a league game. Those boys who desired the protection of California Interscholastic Federation Athletic Protection Fund could have their membership fee of seventy-five cents per boy paid by the student body.

Some of what has been written in this summary will be trite to a member of the profession; however, there are three factors already mentioned that make this project have possibilities of great development in this high school: (1) the large number of boys that have been adequately equipped, (2) the availability of three auxiliary football fields, and (3) the protection offered each player through the agency of the student body and the Athletic Protection Fund.

It appears, from this viewpoint, that this is an activity befitting the ever-moving curriculum of a modern high school which seeks to align itself with the real needs of adolescent youth.

DESIRABLE EMPHASES IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

THE American Association of Junior Colleges has given wide publicity to an address delivered before its twentieth annual meeting by George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education. In this address, which was called "The Next Twenty Years of the Junior-College Movement," the speaker reviewed the development of the new institution during the two decades since the organization of the association and indicated the main lines of emphasis that he regards as desirable for the period immediately ahead. The following brief quotations list these lines.

1. Junior colleges should conceive of their field of effort as including the educational needs of the entire youth population, particularly those eighteen and nineteen years of age. Once such a philosophy is accepted the present traditional curriculum leading on to the completion of an A.B. degree will become only a small part of the total program—though a very important one. Alongside it and far exceeding it in numbers will be terminal curriculums in various vocations, including homemaking, and in general education as a preparation for social life and the realization of one's own peculiar interests and abilities.
2. Such junior colleges supported from public funds should be integrally connected with the secondary-school system so as to represent a natural extension of secondary education. We have done a lot of talking about recognizing junior colleges as the culmination of the secondary education and done very little about it.
3. Co-operative programs of part-time education and part-time work should be extensively organized with local industries and commercial establishments on the one hand, and with public agencies, including the N.Y.A., on the other. No one can ever teach in the four walls of a classroom many of the skills, values, and lessons in life that are learned on a job. On the other hand, schooling has meaning only in terms of practical experience. To be most effective they should be combined and not separated into two unrelated experiences.
4. Each state should provide for a system of junior colleges, each of which would be attached to a local cosmopolitan high school. Such a system should be supported in part by the state, in part by the local school district, in part by tuitions for nonresident students paid by the students' home district, and in part by student fees comparable in size to those paid by students who attend the state institutions of higher education. So long as the state pays the expense of junior-college education at the state university or the state teachers' college, there is every reason why it should also participate in the expense of local public junior colleges which operate on the same level. This argument is all the stronger where states contribute to the expenses of local public schools, including the high schools, as they are doing increasingly. The present method of

financial support for public junior colleges is, except in California, a hodgepodge of legislation which is decidedly unfair to the junior colleges, and which has operated to hold back the progress of junior colleges to the detriment of public welfare.

5. Junior colleges, whether publicly or privately controlled, should become cultural leaders on a broad front in the communities in which they are located. The average American city is of comparatively recent growth. It is a drab place, often filled with cheap advertisements, decaying buildings, overhead telephone wires, scraggly vacant lots, inferior movies, and a whole host of other cultural deficiencies not visible to the physical eye, which regularly assault one's good taste and sense of beauty.

Frequently we forget that in most of the centers in which they are located the junior college represents, or should represent, the highest expression of intellectual, aesthetic, and cultural life in the community. The junior college should then recognize its responsibility as the educational and cultural leader of the community. . . .

6. Study your own problems in the light of the national situation. I rejoice with you that a comprehensive exploration of the junior-college situation is about to get under way. I hope that it is only the forerunner of a longer period of intense self-examination. . . .

7. And finally, I wish that somehow I could lay a special sense of responsibility on the teachers of the junior colleges. Is it not true that they deal with young people at the most critical period in their lives, when they are subject to a complex succession of motives, aspirations, urges, and hopes? Yet in most instances they have little more background and specific preparation for understanding the significance of these problems to individual students than more or less casual observation and an untrustworthy memory of their own more youthful years. It is in no sense of the word professional nor is it scientific. . . .

I am pleading for more junior-college faculty members who are not only competent in some chosen field of subject matter but who are also intelligent about their students, about American education, and about the complex social life which presumably they are preparing young people to enter. I feel this need so keenly, indeed, that it seems to me that any implementation program to carry out the results of the impending study of the junior-college situation might well include several regional summer workshops for junior-college teachers, where exclusive attention may be given to the problems of junior-college instruction. If the junior colleges rise to the challenges now confronting them, it will be because their faculties are equal to the occasion.

Evidence reported in a recent issue of *California Schools*, organ of that state's Department of Education, affords convincing proof that the junior colleges there have made considerable progress along the first of the lines recommended by Dr. Zook. The evidence is re-

ported by Frank B. Lindsay, assistant chief of the Division of Secondary Education, and is to the effect that 14,645, or 46.3 per cent of the total enrolment of 31,641 students in thirty-five California junior colleges, were in "semi-professional and completion curriculums" in March, 1939.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

Two types of innovations only are represented in this feature for the current month, namely, a project of the Wells High School in Chicago aiming to direct vacation activities of pupils along constructive lines and certain experiments in social education in California secondary schools as reported in a recent issue of the *California Journal of Secondary Education*. Other innovations of which descriptions are at hand must wait for the October *School Review*.

Definite planning for the long vacation in summer A committee of the faculty of Wells High School of Chicago, with the advice of Principal Paul R. Pierce, has been working on the problem of encouraging pupils to plan for themselves programs of constructive activities to be carried on during the summer vacation just closed. The planning was done under division-room teachers and was recorded on a form providing for entries relating to "leisure time," "health," "thought and its communication," "social relationships," "economic consciousness," "spiritual and ethical character," and "work." These categories represent the "seven pillars of experience" of the school, which are accepted as its objectives. The form provides also for each category a space for recording "results" at the time of "stock-taking in September." In addition, the Student-Teacher Planning Committee prepared, for distribution in the late spring, a mimeographed bulletin of "Vacation Hints for Wells High" with an introduction called "Making the Most of Your Vacation." The bulletin contains a map of Chicago, on which are indicated the "points of interest," and a long list of "Suggestions for Trips and Tours" grouped under museums, representative industrial establishments, parks, zoölogical parks, conservatories, beaches, forest preserves, hostels, etc. We assume that Principal Pierce will assemble and study the "results" and make them available through publication. This innovation has real promise.

Experimenting in social education in California Five institutions are represented in the reports of experimental developments in social education in California—three junior high schools, a six-year school, and a junior college. It may be unfair to refer to the course in social ethics in the Leland Stanford Junior High School in Sacramento as experimental since Miss Beth Hughson, the principal, states that it has been in the offering of the school for twenty years. The idea of the course was born after a series of parties which Miss Hughson says still have a "nightmarish carry-over." The word most used by the chaperon of the participants was "don't." "It seemed impossible that children could be so rude, so loud, so uncouth." The course is now administered as a one-period-per-week requirement for pupils in Grades VII and VIII and as an elective hour in Grade IX. Generalization concerning the content of the course would list its main topics as deference to leaders, helpfulness, appreciation, responsibility, personal habits, group habits, and formal and informal social amenities. Observation warrants the conclusion that the course has its results in improved general discipline and social behavior in the school.

In the Girls High School in San Francisco, which includes Grades VII–XII, "social guidance" is afforded in four group gatherings during each term. The first gathering, held within the first two weeks of the opening of a new term, concentrates on orientation; the next two on "social guidance, manners, morals, usage"; and the last on vocational guidance. According to Miss Tekla B. Hesselberg, vice-principal of the school, experience with the program during its first year of operation has led a majority of teachers to feel that results have been secured, especially in arousing a consciousness of the importance of proper social behavior.

In the Redlands Junior High School instruction in social development is provided in the last twelve weeks of courses in home economics, required of all girls in Grade VII and elective in Grades VIII and IX, but taken by large proportions of girls in these two grades. As described by Miss Allyn Fike, this portion of the course in Grade VII "lays a general foundation for future work in the fields of good grooming, correct dress, and being a good home member and a desirable friend, and it places special emphasis on everyday good man-

ners." The major emphasis in Grade VIII is on good grooming and correct dress and in Grade IX on home responsibility and being a desirable friend.

In the Washington Junior High School in Fresno, according to Miss Marjorie Del Parker, inculcation of good manners is being accomplished through a fifteen-minute weekly broadcast on Friday, in which pupils participate and which goes under the name of "Madame Manners." The program consists of dramatizations and the answering of letters placed in Madame Manners' box.

During the academic year 1939-40, Stockton Junior College added to its general courses in the Division of Social Science, which already included a course in the "History of Western Civilization" and another in "Social Institutions," a new course called "Contemporary American Ethics." As stated by C. Howard Hopkins, instructor in social science, and Dwayne Orton, head of the junior college, the purpose of the course is to open to students "at least the rudiments of an answer to what we mean by right and wrong, both individually and socially."

DIVERSITY AND UTILITY IN PAPER COVERS

THE late spring and summer months have yielded an unusual array of useful publications in paper covers. Not all can be noted here, but several of the best are briefly described.

Pictorial publicity and emphasis on the teacher Reference has previously been made to the profusely illustrated annual reports of the superintendent of schools in New York City which are being published under the title *All the Children*. The forty-first annual report recently published is no exception to the policy of drawing on large amounts of attractive pictorial matter, but the motif for the year is both unusual and commendable. The Foreword to the report says that Superintendent Harold G. Campbell "has chosen teacher devotion as the theme" and "offers herewith a score or so of examples." He assures us that he might offer "many, many more," but that all would tell the same story. "There is no book thick enough to hold them all." The examples are illustrative of what teachers do in addition to teaching the course

of study. Although the teachers' names are given, we are told that all were reluctant to permit the use of their names. The report contains also much of the information regarded as essential to the usual record of accomplishment and development in the system, as is suggested by such captions as "Registration Trends," "Junior High Schools," "Vocational High Schools," and "New School Buildings."

A study of "job opportunities" in the community From Kalamazoo, Michigan, has come the fifth in a series of studies of business in the city designed to provide information needed by the schools in equipping youth to enter efficiently into the vocational life of the community. This particular bulletin, extending through more than a hundred mimeographed pages, is concerned with job opportunities in architectural, designing, drafting, and engineering occupations. Earlier bulletins have had to do with printing and publishing, commercial work, retail selling, and machine and allied occupations. A sixth in the series will deal with the paper industry. The bulletins are the outcome of co-operative effort of members of the school staff (with Russell Doney, director of research and guidance, in charge), representatives of the employing industries, and officers of the Works Progress Administration in Michigan.

An attractive new guide to a unit on finding a job A spring issue of *Building America*, a publication previously described in these pages, is devoted to the problem of "Finding Your Job." In harmony with the well-established policy suggested by the subtitle of this periodical, "A Photographic Magazine of Modern Problems," this issue is generously pictorialized with photographs and graphical representations. The content is organized for effective instruction under such captions as "America's Problem: Jobs for Workers," "Building Up a Personality Picture," "Building Up Job Pictures," "Where Is Job Training Secured?" "Applying for the Job," "Many Are Unemployed through No Fault of Their Own," "New Ideas in Job-hunting," and "New Frontiers: Jobs for the Future." As with earlier issues, this one contains a selected and annotated bibliography of books, periodicals, and pamphlets on the subject treated.

Experience with a radio station owned by schools Through a co-operative agreement with the General Education Board, the Cleveland (Ohio) Board of Education developed its own broadcasting station, WBOE. One of the provisions in the arrangement between the two boards was that a report of the experience with the station would be made available. The station was in operation during most of the school year 1938-39 and, in accordance with the provision, a *Report of Radio Activities, 1938-1939*, *Station WBOE* has made its way into print. The report consists of two main sections, "Education" and "Technical." The first section contains chapters on "The Radio Teachers," "Radio Lesson Manuscripts," "WBOE Schedule," "Station Administration," "Results of the Radio Lessons," and "Future Plans"; the second section, on "Radio Receivers," "Transmitter," "Studio Plans," and "Cost Analysis." The whole document contains an abundance of illustrative material which helps to make the report concrete. Many school authorities will be interested in this record of experience of a large city system with a school-owned station.

Equipment for recording and for sound in schools The Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning has issued two more, helpful publications. One entitled *Central Sound Systems for Schools* contains chapters on "The Functions of Central Sound Systems in Schools," "Facilities Provided by Central Sound Systems," "Technical Characteristics of Sound Systems," and "Sample Specifications for a School Sound System." The other, *Sound Recording Equipment for Schools*, besides an introduction has chapters on "General Principles of Sound Recording," "Present Day Recording Methods," "Units of Direct Disk Recording Systems," and "Comparison of Commercial Recorders." Copies of these highly informative publications may be obtained at the office of the committee at 41 East Forty-second Street, New York City.

Two useful bulletins for the high-school principal Bulletins of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals have been increasing both in frequency of publication and in usefulness. Two instances in point are the *Student-Council Handbook* by Ellen Boothroyd Brogue, of the staff of the

association, and Paul B. Jacobson, assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago and principal of the University High School; and *Youth and Work Opportunities*, compiled and edited by Principal Jacobson. The subtitle of the first of these bulletins refers to it as "A Handbook Describing Three Hundred Sixty-one Student Councils." The practical phases of this treatment of the student-council problem are suggested by chapters dealing with "Purposes of Pupil Participation in School Control," "Organizing a Council," "The Student-Council Meeting," "Faculty Supervision," "Student-Council Projects," and "Student-Council Finances." This bulletin also contains a bibliography on student councils.

The other bulletin, it may be, meets a more pressing need than the *Handbook*. *Youth and Work Opportunities* is put forward as "a manual containing descriptions of a number of selected school-aid projects and a few resident centers sponsored by the National Youth Administration, and giving information on the youth problem and its relationship to secondary education." Chapters have been contributed by Floyd W. Reeves, Howard M. Bell, Charles H. Judd, and Kenneth Holland. Descriptions are provided of numerous projects carried on in the schools. Here is help for the school administrator who wants to know the why and the how of the N.Y.A. in secondary schools.

Copies of the bulletins may be purchased from H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, for one dollar.

WHO'S WHO FOR SEPTEMBER

The authors of articles in the current issue WILLIAM C. REAVIS, professor of education at the University of Chicago. SISTER M. LUCINA, instructor in secondary education at Our Lady of the Lake College, San Antonio, Texas. E. R. HARRINGTON, head of the science department in the Albuquerque High School, Albuquerque, New Mexico. HAROLD A. ANDERSON, instructor in education and the teaching of English and teacher in the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago. ARTHUR E. TRAXLER, assistant director of the Educational Records Bureau, New York City. VERA L. PEACOCK, head of the Department of Foreign Languages at Southern Illinois Normal University, Carbondale,

Illinois. PERCIVAL W. HUTSON, professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh.

The writers of reviews DONALD L. SIMON, principal of the in the current issue Bloomington Junior and Senior High School, Bloomington, Indiana. HAROLD H. PUNKE, professor of education at Georgia State Womans College, Valdosta, Georgia. C. T. GRAY, professor of educational psychology at the University of Texas. PAUL R. PIERCE, principal of Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois. W. FRANCIS ENGLISH, principal of the Carrollton High School, Carrollton, Missouri. ERNEST A. ZELLIOT, director of the Department of Business Education in the public schools of Des Moines, Iowa.

AN APPRAISAL OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

WILLIAM C. REAVIS
University of Chicago

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CONDITIONS AFFECTING ADMINISTRATION

IN AN appraisal of secondary-school administration restricted to a single paper, one could scarcely be expected to furnish an adequate answer to the question of how efficiently the secondary schools of the United States are being administered. The best that anyone could do would be to give an appraisal of a sampling of schools or a sampling of aspects of administration. Fortunately many sampling studies have already been made, and many aspects of administration have been critically examined. All these studies can be drawn on in arriving at some generalizations regarding the present status of administration in American secondary schools.

Perhaps it should be indicated at the outset of the discussion, at least for those individuals who are critics of secondary-school administration, that the large majority of the public secondary schools of the United States are relatively young institutions, having come into being within a period of fifty years.¹ Approximately half of these schools are less than twenty-five years old. Furthermore, in many states the secondary schools have had to compete with the older elementary schools, state teachers' colleges, and state universities for public recognition and support. In reaching their present stage of popularization, the secondary schools have also had to overcome a deep-seated prejudice on the part of the common man that secondary education is only of secondary importance while elementary edu-

¹ The number of public high schools in 1890-91 was 2,771 (*Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June 30, 1916*, II, 449); the most recent estimate of the number of high schools in the United States is 25,000 (*Trends in Secondary Education*, p. 1. Being Chapter II of Volume I of the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36* [advance pages]. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1937).

tion is of primary importance. As a result, in periods of economic depression the secondary school has been the first division of the public-school system to feel the effects of forced economy. In the recent depression the pupil load of secondary schools was necessarily greatly increased, but the financial support was greatly decreased. It was at this time that the administrators of the secondary schools were most sharply criticized for not being able to adjust their programs quickly to the changed social and economic conditions nor to assimilate the new load of pupils not formerly accustomed to seeking the services of the secondary schools.

Because of the obvious difficulties in making rapid adjustments, secondary-school administration has been, and still is, the subject of frequent attacks. Some critics charge that organization, administration, and supervision lag behind contemporary social, economic, and political developments. If the most poorly administered secondary school is compared with the best administered city, health department, public library, elementary school, or institution of higher education, the criticism is valid. When the most efficiently administered secondary school is compared with poorly administered contemporary institutions, the criticism is without basis. If like is compared with like and the factor of age is given any consideration at all, the conclusion is inevitable that secondary-school administration compares favorably with public administration or with educational administration in any other unit of the American school system. In this connection it is appropriate to point out that progress is invariably specific rather than general and that any sweeping conclusion which fails to take into consideration individual variations is hazardous.

Everyone knows that a division of the school system numbering approximately twenty-five thousand units, many of which are relatively new, must necessarily have some schools that are poorly administered as well as some that are most efficiently managed. Since it is the practice in civil affairs to hold up for commendation and emulation the successfully administered units rather than those that are inefficiently administered, the same practice will be followed in this appraisal. The constructive contributions of secondary-school administration instead of its shortcomings and inadequacies will therefore be given consideration. To do otherwise would be fatuous,

for nobody in secondary education looks to the unsuccessful or even to the moderately successful schools for constructive administrative practices.

That there are many outstanding accomplishments in administration in the secondary schools of the United States is amply supported by the opinions of professional leaders competent to judge and by a wealth of reported achievements in the voluminous literature of secondary education. Reports of these achievements can be found in the numerous textbooks on secondary-school administration, the bulletins of the National Survey of Secondary Education, the *Biennial Surveys* of the United States Office of Education, the surveys of city school systems, the annual reports of city superintendents, the annual reports of secondary-school principals, and the descriptive accounts in educational magazines of innovating administrative practices, such as those reported in the columns of the *School Review* in the section entitled "Here and There among the High Schools." In this last-named section, which was started as a regular feature in January, 1936, have appeared in four years about 260 accounts of significant practices in the administration of secondary schools scattered through virtually all the states.

Anyone who is familiar with the literature mentioned in the foregoing paragraph knows that for no other unit of the American school system is there a body of comparable material on which to base authoritative conclusions with respect to administrative practices. The successful and the unsuccessful practices in secondary-school administration are therein discussed, and the tendencies are clearly revealed.

The findings show that there is no area in secondary-school administration that can be regarded as fallow for all secondary schools. Innovating practices far in advance of accepted practices have been developed in individual schools and groups of schools and through gradual seepage have become widely adopted, if not universally accepted. The influences of accrediting associations, professional organizations of school administrators, and departments of education in colleges and universities have contributed greatly to the advancement of successful practices in administration in schools in which the leadership has had the courage to break with tradition and to under-

take innovating practices. The net result of all these influences has been a greater development of successful administrative practices in a shorter period of time than has been experienced by any other unit of the American school system.

No other unit of the school system has ever been confronted with so great a challenge to modify administrative practices as that faced by the secondary school. In the professional lifetime of many administrative officers of the city secondary schools, changes of near-revolutionary proportions have been made in the demands for new and extended services. If earnest attempts have been put forth to meet the demands by such administrative officers, great achievements in administration have inevitably resulted in the schools concerned.

Some of the areas in which significant administrative achievements have been made are: (1) articulation with other units of the school system, (2) improvement of the program of studies and materials of instruction, (3) provisions for the needs of deviate pupils, (4) training for worthy citizenship, (5) personnel management and guidance, (6) extra-curriculum activities, (7) permanent records, (8) scientific schedule-making, (9) utilization of school facilities, (10) in-service training of instructional staff, (11) evaluation of educational outcomes, and (12) school and community relations. Evaluative criteria for the measurement of achievements in most of the areas specified have been developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.¹ Use of the criteria indicated makes possible an appraisal of any given secondary school in one hundred specific aspects of organization, administration, and supervision. Comparison can then be made with the scaled ratings, ranging from near zero to 100 per cent, of two hundred representative secondary schools.

Since it is impossible in a single paper to consider all the phases of secondary-school administration, the four aspects in which claims to efficiency appear most open to question have been selected for specific consideration. An attempt is made (1) to appraise the present effectiveness of articulation between secondary schools and the elementary schools below and the institutions of higher learning

¹ *How To Evaluate a Secondary School, 1940 Edition*. Washington: Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, 1939 (second edition).

above; (2) to characterize the improvements that have been made in the program of studies and the materials of instruction; (3) to determine the character of the progress made in adapting the offerings of the secondary schools to the needs of individual pupils and in counseling with pupils regarding their uses of the opportunities provided; and (4) to evaluate the contributions of the secondary-school administrator to the training of pupils for the responsibilities of citizenship.

ARTICULATION WITH UNITS BELOW AND ABOVE

The working relations existing between secondary schools and elementary schools on the one hand and institutions of higher education on the other should be considered an excellent measure of the efficiency of the administration in any given secondary school. Two or three decades ago the rating given to secondary-school administration by this measure would have been low. Secondary-school principals were then frequently charged with ignoring the elementary school and with accepting a condition of bondage to the institutions of higher learning. The results were (1) the creation between the elementary school and the secondary school of a gap which made difficult the transition of pupils from the one to the other unit of the school system and (2) the willing acceptance of a program of studies and instruction conceived and administered largely as preparatory work for the few pupils who might elect, after graduation, to enter college. Thus inarticulation between the school units became so serious that the condition aroused national concern. A commission of the Department of Superintendence was appointed to study the problems, and a yearbook entitled *The Articulation of the Units of American Education* was produced in 1929.¹

In recent years great improvements have been made in the relations between the units of the school systems, especially in those relations for which secondary schools are responsible. Principals of few secondary schools are now charged with indifference toward the elementary schools. Relations have been developed which render the

¹ *The Articulation of the Units of American Education*. Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1929.

transition of pupils from the elementary schools easy and effective. Conferences are held between administrative officers in the two units. The advice of the principal and the teachers in the lower units is secured in the classification and the scheduling of pupils in the first year of the secondary unit. Most of the pupils in the highest grade of the elementary schools and many of their parents are informed and counseled regarding the offerings of the receiving secondary schools, and visiting days prior to admission are commonly arranged to facilitate the transition of pupils from the elementary to the secondary unit.

Another measure of articulation is the extent to which the secondary schools have undertaken internal reorganization to achieve better integration with the other units of the American school system. The evidence of accomplishment in this respect is remarkable. From a mere beginning in a few schools around 1910, the number of secondary schools reported by the Office of Education in 1937 as having undergone internal reorganization of a fundamental character, thereby improving their articulation with other school units, approximated seven thousand, or nearly a third of the schools reporting to the national office.¹ As a result of the numerous reorganizations, about half of the pupils now attending secondary schools have had their opportunities for an education enriched through this achievement in administration.

In support of the foregoing claim, evidence presented in the National Survey of Secondary Education shows that in schools so reorganized the enrolment is greatly increased and conditions are established which are much more conducive to the solution of the problems of secondary education than are the conditions generally found in systems organized according to the conventional plan of an eight-year elementary school and a four-year secondary school. Furthermore, it is found that internal improvements long advocated by leaders in education have been incorporated to a greater extent in the programs of the reorganized secondary schools than in those not attempting such administrative changes. The fol-

¹ *Trends in Secondary Education*, p. 8. Being Chapter II of Volume I of the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36* (advance pages). United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1937.

lowing improvements are mentioned as especially noteworthy: (1) greater flexibility and comprehensiveness of the program of studies, (2) more effective scheduling of classes, (3) better programs of athletic and nonathletic extra-curriculum activities, (4) greater provisions for educational and vocational guidance, and (5) a conspicuous increase in the qualifications of teachers in charge of pupils formerly instructed in the seventh and eighth grades of elementary schools.¹

It is not my intention to imply that secondary schools that have not undergone reorganization may not also have achieved effective articulation with elementary schools and may not have made needed internal improvements. Some of the most progressive schools found in the National Survey of Secondary Education were of the regular four-year type. Their leaders were sentient to the needs of entering pupils, and internal administrative improvements of the most advanced types had been instituted. Some of these regular schools not only had all the innovating practices found in the reorganized schools but also had other advanced practices as well. However, when all the secondary schools studied were considered as a whole, the difference in advanced administrative practices between the two types of schools definitely favored the reorganized group.²

In a similar manner articulation between the secondary school and higher institutions has been greatly improved in recent years. Programs of individual pupils are now planned with counselors in order that the transition from secondary school to college may be successful for those who signify a desire to enter college. These programs are planned, not with the idea merely of satisfying college-entrance requirements, but with the purpose of providing a fruitful secondary education that will enable those students who go to college to succeed after admission. Furthermore, the programs of the pupils who do not plan to go to college are not subordinated to college-admission requirements to the extent that they once were but are planned with the idea of making possible a substantial general education and the exploration of special interests in the secondary unit.

¹ Leonard V. Koos and Staff, *Summary*, p. 56. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 1. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

² *Ibid.*

It may be maintained that improved articulation between the secondary school and the institutions of higher education has been influenced largely by the adoption of a more liberal policy by the higher institutions toward admission requirements. Even so, the changes effected in the secondary schools to bring about better articulation, whatever the motivating force, must be regarded as a major achievement in internal organization and administration.

PROGRAM OF STUDIES

Studies of current needs in secondary education reveal that the program of studies and the materials of instruction are generally recognized as presenting most urgent problems in administration. Improvements in this area have been difficult to effect because of the resistance offered by traditions and customs. As a result, needed changes in many secondary schools have been strongly opposed by conservative influences and have been delayed beyond the time when such changes were desirable and necessary. Even here, however, secondary-school administration is not without achievements.

The following important achievements have been made in the improvement of the program of studies of secondary schools: (1) The average number of curriculums, that is, schematic arrangements of courses designed to meet the needs of particular groups of pupils, more than doubled in the period 1906-11 to 1929-30. (2) The college-preparatory curriculum has yielded space in the program of studies to general, commercial, industrial-arts, household-arts, fine-arts, and other curriculums. (3) The total course offerings in the program of studies of the average secondary school have increased during the interval studied from 23.7 to 48.1. (4) The curriculum areas in which the largest increase in number of offerings has taken place are English, social studies, and the nonacademic fields. (5) A conspicuous shift in the nature of the work required of all pupils has occurred, foreign languages and mathematics yielding to English, social studies, and physical education.¹

The changes in the program of studies just enumerated are in harmony with the improvements advocated by leaders in curric-

¹ George E. Van Dyke, "Trends in the Development of the High-School Offering," *School Review*, XXXIX (November and December, 1931), 657-64, 737-47.

ulum reform. The resulting achievements are (1) a greater diversification of offerings, which makes possible greater provisions for the individual differences of the changing pupil personnel, and (2) a greater emphasis on the immediate values in the present offerings as opposed to the deferred values of the older college-preparatory subjects. The shift in the organization of the program of studies has been away from the single required and multiple curriculums in the direction of core and elective courses or constant and variable subjects, which are intended to provide both the fundamental training needed for worthy citizenship and the exploration of special interests.¹ Great enrichment in the program of studies has also taken place through the addition of activities designed to facilitate social integration, that is, special-interest clubs, home-room activities, civic organizations, recreational activities, and the like. Participation in such activities formerly took place largely outside regular school hours; now such participation is rapidly becoming a part of the daily schedule of sponsored activities.

In the area of curriculum improvements alone, the United States Office of Education reports the receipt of 699 published contributions from junior and senior high schools in the three-year period 1934-37.² Five hundred and ten of these contributions came from secondary schools in city school systems; ninety-five from secondary schools in county systems; and ninety-four were the co-operative results of state departments of education working with secondary-school administrators and teachers.³ While all the contributions are not of equal value, the entire list can be characterized as an administrative achievement of considerable magnitude in the field of secondary education.

The specific areas of the secondary-school curriculum in which the contributions were made are: social studies, 114 contributions; English, 108; science, 60; mathematics, 48; business and commercial studies, 40; home economics and child care, 38; foreign languages,

¹ Leonard V. Koos, James M. Hughes, Percival W. Hutson, and William C. Reavis, *Administering the Secondary School*, pp. 13-49. New York: American Book Co., 1940.

² Bernice E. Leary, *A Survey of Courses of Study and Other Curriculum Materials Published since 1934*, p. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 31, 1937.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

34; physical education, 30; industrial arts, 26; health and hygiene, 17; art, 16; music, 7; agriculture, 3; reading, 3; spelling, 2; and handwriting, 1. In addition to the contributions enumerated, 113 bulletins reporting general revision of the program of studies and 39 bulletins treating special areas, such as character education, safety, guidance, vocational education, and the like, have been prepared and are available in printed or mimeographed form.¹

Critical appraisal of some of the most significant of the foregoing contributions and careful reading of the prefatory statements and special features of the entire list published by the Office of Education warrant the statement that an impressive beginning has been made in the improvement of secondary-school curriculums. The large proportion of the contributions reflect the current point of view, namely, that the improvement of the curriculum requires continuous adjustment to the needs of a changing social order. Although many of the contributions are designated as "tentative syllabi," "suggestive outlines," and "temporary revisions," they contain extensive new materials of instruction, aids to study, suggestions for creative activities, lists of appropriate visual aids, and titles of available references, which stimulate interest and vitalize learning and teaching.

It would be extravagant, of course, to allot all the credit for the recent improvements in the program of studies and in the materials of instruction to the administrative officers of the secondary schools. Likewise it would be unduly critical to blame them for all the shortcomings discovered in the secondary-school curriculum. However, administrative officers must accept the responsibility for the status of the program of studies and instructional materials in use in the schools under their charge. That the administrators of many secondary schools have not been lacking in assuming such responsibility in recent years is fully supported by the findings cited.

PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

A criticism frequently voiced against secondary-school administration in the past has been its inability to secure the adaptation of the offerings of the school to the individual differences of pupils. The evidence with respect to this criticism indicates that much prog-

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 5, 8.

ress is being made and that many new provisions are being developed for use in meeting individual differences in a large number of schools. Analysis by Gossard¹ of the most recent annual school reports of nine of the twelve largest cities in the United States reveals 220 references to provisions being made in the secondary schools of these cities for superior pupils and 251 references to provisions for backward or slow-learning pupils. The total number of references to such provisions in the secondary schools of these cities exceeds the total similar references to provisions being made in the elementary schools of the same cities by 82, or 21 per cent. Special provisions made for these two types of pupils in the secondary schools of the cities in question consist in (1) the modification of the amount of content of courses through variation in time requirements, (2) the differentiation in the content of courses to provide for the needs of superior and backward pupils, (3) the enrichment of the content of courses for superior pupils as an alternative to rapid advancement, (4) the simplification of course material to suit the abilities of slow learners, (5) the offering of special courses and special curriculums to provide for pupils not served by the general curriculum, and (6) modifications of standards of marking and promotion to conform with the abilities and efforts of pupils.

The earlier findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education² with respect to provisions for individual differences would have justified the forecast of the recent facts reported by Gossard for the secondary schools in the nine large cities. In the National Survey, reports received from 8,594 schools revealed 28 different provisions made for the accommodation of individual pupils, the frequencies ranging from 6,428 in the case of variation in the number of subjects that a pupil might be permitted to carry to a single school employing a single technique to accomplish the purpose. By telescoping, the 28 provisions were reduced to the following seven distinct and non-overlapping categories: (1) homogeneous grouping, (2) special

¹ Arthur Paul Gossard, *Superior and Backward Children in Public Schools*, p. 120. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940 (in press).

² Roy O. Billett, *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 13. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

classes, (3) unit assignments, (4) scientific study of problem cases, (5) variation in pupil load, (6) out-of-school projects and studies, and (7) advisory or guidance programs.¹ The use of one or more of these means of providing for individual differences by so many secondary schools showed that administrators generally were keenly alert in 1930 to the necessity of making some kind of adjustment in school offerings and of advising pupils with respect to individual needs.

Adjustments of the kind specified in use in the nine large cities² referred to are administrative achievements worthy of mention, since it is generally believed that the inertia resulting from the lag of tradition and established practice renders change in administrative procedures in large cities more difficult than in small or medium-sized communities. The findings from the study of school reports of the cities in question reveal not only marked general progress in the adjustment of curriculum offerings and materials of learning to the individual needs of pupils, but also advanced experimentation in individual secondary schools in these cities.

Another area in which secondary schools are commonly believed to be deficient is that of providing for pupils of the nonacademic type. Principals generally realize the need of finding more effective solutions to this problem, which, because of its newness, has proved somewhat baffling to both administrators and teachers. An investigation of the achievements in this area by individual schools scattered throughout the country is being carried on by the Implementation Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. A recent bulletin of the association entitled *That All May Learn*³ outlines the problems faced by the American secondary schools in this area and attempts to define the characteristics and the needs of pupils designated by the committee as the "educationally neglected." The bulletin brings together a number of important con-

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 5-11.

² Arthur Paul Gossard, *op. cit.*, p. 120.

³ B. L. Dodds, *That All May Learn*. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIII, No. 85. Chicago: National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1939.

tributions made by individual schools in improving the opportunities for secondary education among this educationally neglected group.

The evidence on the question reveals a widespread recognition among secondary-school administrators of the problem of adapting curriculum offerings to the needs of nonacademic pupils, who are invariably neglected in schools that have developed their programs of studies after the college-preparatory patterns of the past. The general interest of the administrative officers and the numerous efforts already made to find solutions to the problem warrant the belief that the nonacademic pupil will not long continue to be the educationally neglected pupil in American secondary schools.

TRAINING PUPILS FOR CITIZENSHIP

The most important measure of the effectiveness of administration in any secondary school is the quality of its output of pupil personnel. Do the pupils emerge with civic intelligence, with established habits of meeting civic responsibilities, and with an appreciation of the processes of the democratic way of life? The evidence of results on this measure is conflicting. Indeed, the results are found to vary greatly from school to school. If the generalization of the Regents' Inquiry that "collectively, the leaving pupils [of the secondary schools in New York] constitute a group schooled in academic facts, recognizing their rights as free citizens in a free country, but unconcerned about civic responsibility, and not awake even to the immediate and local problems and issues which will shortly confront them as citizens, taxpayers, and voters,"¹ is a valid appraisal of the output of secondary schools generally, then the administration of these schools is woefully lacking.

In the absence of comparable data from secondary schools in other states, it is impossible to show whether the leaving personnel of other areas are better or more poorly trained for civic responsibilities than are those in New York. Since, however, the inquiry revealed great variance in the civic awareness of pupils from different schools in New York, it may be concluded that, if the same measures were applied to a much wider selection of secondary schools, similarly

¹ Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, p. 32. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939.

both good and poor results would be found. The question of importance then is: Why are some schools efficient in preparing pupils for civic responsibilities and others are not? Is the explanation to be found in the status of articulation, of program of studies, and of provisions for individual differences, or in the status of a school's organization and administration?

Since the administrator must accept responsibility for what a school under his charge continues to be, it is obvious that the character of the preparation for worthy citizenship received by the pupils in a given school is at least a partial measure of the efficiency of the administration. If the recommendation of the New York Regents' Inquiry¹ is correct regarding the condition found, namely, that the straightest road to social consciousness is by way of pupil participation in school government through student councils, committees, and the like, then the administrative heads of selected secondary schools appear to be moving in the right direction. Support for the conclusion is found in a recent study in which 1,985 schools, or 81 per cent of the schools investigated, provided for pupil government or pupil participation.² An earlier study of 81 selected secondary schools in 28 states revealed that 72 of the schools, or approximately 90 per cent, provided for pupil government or pupil participation.³

That the pupils in schools so administered are acquiring habits and attitudes characteristic of democratic processes of government can be supported by substantial qualitative evidence, if not by objective-test scores. For example, discipline was formerly a serious problem in secondary schools, even when schools were small and the highly selected pupils were supposed to be dominated by life-career motives. Today, with a heterogeneous group of pupils, many of whom are in school because of legal necessity or lack of opportunities for gainful employment, discipline as a serious problem has largely disappeared. The explanation for the change can be attributed in a

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 263-65.

² Ellen Boothroyd Brogue and Paul B. Jacobson, *Student-Council Handbook*, p. 17. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIV, No. 89. Chicago: National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1940.

³ Unpublished study made by the Judd Club (an organization of school administrators in the vicinity of Chicago), April, 1937.

large measure to changes in the character of the secondary schools brought about through competent administrative leadership. Even if the schools are as yet unable to provide adequately for the direct education of certain types of pupils, many opportunities are offered for indirect education through living with other pupils and sharing the responsibilities of school citizenship. In so doing, the pupil acquires social consciousness by the only method known to be successful, namely, that of developing a genuine feeling of group membership, through learning to think, to feel, and to act with the group as a part of it as it performs its activities and strives to attain its ends.

CONCLUSION

In concluding this appraisal it seems appropriate to point out that a substantial proportion of the persons engaged in secondary-school administration recognize the areas in secondary education which present urgent problems for solution. Great progress in solving many of these problems is being made by the leaders of pace-setting schools. The contributions made can be utilized by any administrative officer who is willing to profit from such experiences. To this end the National Association of Secondary-School Principals makes available informative materials on urgent problems¹ and provides a nation-wide organization of discussion groups for the consideration of such problems.² Thus the head of any secondary school can easily ascertain the outstanding achievements in all areas of administration and can avail himself of the advantages of consultation and advice. It therefore appears plausible to expect that even the most difficult problems of secondary-school administration will gradually yield under the influences of successful contemporary practices. If there is any cause for impatience regarding the progress that is being made, it finds its justification in the extent of the progress among our twenty-five thousand secondary schools, certainly not in the direction or in the rate.

¹ Through the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, published monthly, October to May, inclusive.

² Through the Discussion-Group Project sponsored by the Planning Committee of the association.

SEX DIFFERENCES IN ADOLESCENT ATTITUDES TOWARD BEST FRIENDS

SISTER M. LUCINA

Our Lady of the Lake College, San Antonio, Texas

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THE PROBLEM

CONKLIN in his *Adolescent Psychology* makes mention of a prevalent belief in a divergence in the nature of the social attitudes of developing boys and girls. It is during adolescence, he affirms, that friendship attitudes are gradually assuming prominence over gang loyalties. He makes this statement: "If in this [attitude toward friends] there appears any sex difference we do not know; but there are many who suspect that the attitudes of a girl toward her chum are not in all respects like the attitudes of a boy toward his pal."¹ The present study was made to investigate the problem suggested in Conklin's statement: that of determining sex differences, if any, in the attitudes of adolescents toward their pals or chums.

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION AND RESULTS

Preliminary to the study proper an investigation was made to determine the items which should be included in the attitude test. A paper containing the following directions was submitted to fifty adolescent boys and seventy-five adolescent girls from three high schools.

Will you please help us devise an attitude test by reading the directions given below and following them? Please write some statements which show your feeling or attitude towards your best boy (girl) friend. For example: "I am always happy when I am with my pal." "I tell my secrets to my pal."

From the replies to these papers a list of thirty-five statements was compiled. These statements, with directions, form the attitude test.

¹ Edmund S. Conklin, *Principles of Adolescent Psychology*, p. 51. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1935.

This attitude test was then submitted in mimeographed form to more than six hundred adolescents from three public senior high schools and one junior high school in San Antonio, Texas; and from two private senior high schools—one in Alexandria, Louisiana, and the other in Tulsa, Oklahoma. Replies stating that the adolescent had no best friend, those answered from the standpoint of a boy toward a girl friend, and those showing evidences of misunderstanding of the test were rejected. The subjects were asked to give their ages and grades but not their names. The directions given for checking the items were:

Following is a list of statements about one's best friend or pal. If you are a *girl*, consider the statements with reference to your best *girl* friend; if you are a *boy*, answer with reference to your best *boy* friend. Place a plus sign (+) before each statement with which you *agree*.

SAMPLE ITEMS

-1. My best friend is always true to me.
-3. I am proud to be seen with my best friend.
-18. My best friend cheers and comforts me.

The apparent sincerity with which the statements were answered is indicated by remarks written at the end of the test by some of the adolescents. Some of these remarks were:

BOY (SEVENTEEN): A best friend should be backed up by you in most cases, but not at all times.

BOY (SEVENTEEN): Don't believe in best friends. They're on a fence and can fall either way.

GIRL (FIFTEEN): I do envy my best friend sometimes, but it is not jealousy, and I am glad for her good luck.

BOY (SIXTEEN): I always keep my secrets to myself.

BOY (FIFTEEN): My attitude toward my best friend is for necessary reasons paternal and not fraternal.

BOY (EIGHTEEN): He is hard-headed as they come.

GIRL (FIFTEEN): She's just swell.

The distribution of boys and girls represented in the study according to age is shown in Table 1.

The percentages of boys and girls checking the items are recorded in Table 2. The critical ratios of seven (Items 13, 24, 25, 28, 29, 30, and 31) of the sixteen items with which larger percentages of boys

agreed showed sex differences greater than would be expected to occur by chance. Few boys or girls considered their best friends perfect in every way (Item 4). About 20 per cent feared that their secrets might be revealed (Item 33). About two-thirds of both boys and girls thought their best friends were good influences (Item 7). The attitude of relying on best friends to back them up (Item 13) was much more pronounced in boys than in girls. Although a small percentage (about 25) of the adolescents envied their best friends (Items 23, 24, and 25), this attitude was much more evident in boys than in girls, the critical ratios being 2.96, 5.73, and 5.57. Boys, more than girls, thought their pals gave in to themselves too much (Item 28).

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS REPRESENTED
IN STUDY ACCORDING TO AGE

Age	Number of Boys	Number of Girls
13.....	26
14.....	26	16
15.....	49	76
16.....	96	115
17.....	80	53
18.....	38	21
Total.....	289	307

Only a small percentage (less than a third) of either boys or girls got tired of their pals (Item 29), but in this respect, as well as in thinking that their friends occupied too much of their time (Item 30), there was a decided sex difference in favor of the boys. Only 20 per cent of the boys and 9 per cent of the girls indicated that they were jealous of their best friends (Item 31), but there was a significant difference in favor of the boys. Boys and girls did not differ much in their attitude toward "double-dating" (Item 34) nor in that of being disappointed in their best friends (Item 35).

Among the seventeen differences in which larger percentages of girls agreed with the test item, there were only four (Items 3, 6, 10, and 18) that discriminate the responses of boys and girls to an extent suggesting the existence of true differences. In two instances (Items

TABLE 2
PERCENTAGES OF BOYS AND GIRLS AGREEING WITH EACH ITEM OF
TEST OF ATTITUDE TOWARD BEST FRIEND

TEST ITEM (IN ABBREVIATED FORM)	PERCENTAGE AGREEING		DIFFERENCE IN PER- CENTAGES*	STANDARD DEVIATION OF DIFFERENCE	DIFF. S.D. diff.
	Boys	Girls			
1. Is always true to me.....	68	73	- 5	3.73	1.34
2. I can trust my best friend in any way.....	75	75	3.55
3. I am proud to be seen with my best friend.....	86	95	- 9	2.39	3.77
4. Is perfect in every way.....	18	16	2	3.17	.63
5. Is superior to other friends.....	32	35	- 3	3.89	.77
6. I like my best friend too well to give up.....	60	74	- 14	3.82	3.66
7. Is a good influence.....	66	65	1	3.89	.26
8. I respect the moral charac- ter of my best friend.....	80	82	- 2	3.20	.63
9. We like to do the same things.....	67	75	- 8	3.71	2.16
10. I feel lost without my best friend.....	49	64	- 15	4.02	3.73
11. Would help me at any time.....	80	91	- 2	2.46	.81
12. Gives me good advice.....	62	67	- 5	3.83	1.31
13. Always backs me up.....	66	54	12	3.98	3.02
14. We take turns giving in.....	55	59	- 4	4.05	.99
15. Is interested in my good.....	63	67	- 4	3.90	1.03
16. Is amusing.....	74	78	- 4	3.50	1.14
17. Can take teasing.....	71	79	- 8	3.54	2.26
18. Cheers and comforts me.....	64	77	- 13	3.70	3.51
19. I do not confide entirely in my best friend.....	44	46	- 2	4.07	.49
20. I get angry with my best friend.....	69	68	1	3.81	.26
21. We make up soon after dis- agreement.....	74	74	3.59
22. I have other friends.....	94	97	- 3	1.70	1.76
23. I envy the personality of my best friend.....	27	17	10	3.38	2.06
24. I envy his success in school.....	28	10	18	3.14	5.73
25. I envy his success in sports.....	26	9	17	3.05	5.57
26. Sometimes bores me.....	31	21	10	3.58	2.79
27. I give in more than I am given in to.....	29	20	9	3.51	2.56
28. Gives in to self too much.....	20	10	10	2.90	3.45
29. I get tired of pal.....	32	14	18	3.38	5.33
30. Takes up too much time.....	13	2	11	2.13	5.16
31. I am sometimes jealous of my best friend.....	20	9	11	2.85	3.86
32. I have a fear my liking for my best friend will stop.....	22	27	- 5	3.38	1.48
33. I have a fear of telling se- crets.....	22	16	6	3.21	1.87
34. I like to "double-date".....	56	53	3	4.07	.74
35. I am sometimes dis- appointed in my best friend.....	44	37	7	4.01	1.75

* The percentages preceded by minus signs are those in which larger percentages of girls responded to the questionnaire item; those with no signs are those in which larger percentages of boys responded.

2 and 21) there were no differences. About nine-tenths of both boys and girls were proud to be seen with their best friends (Item 3), but the girls more so than the boys. Practically all the boys and the girls had other friends besides their best friends (Item 22), yet more girls than boys felt lost without their best friends (Item 10) and would not like to give them up (Item 6). About three-fourths of both the boys and the girls thought that their best friends were amusing (Item 16) and that they were capable of taking teasing (Item 17), but the girls more than the boys felt that their friends cheered and comforted them (Item 18). There was a fairly high agreement rather than a difference between the boys and girls in their attitude of trust in a best friend (Item 2), respect for his moral character (Item 8), willingness to help (Item 11), and in the give-and-take attitude (Item 14). More than two-thirds of both boys and girls enjoyed doing the same things (Item 9). Only about a fourth of the adolescents feared the cessation of their friendship (Item 32).

CONCLUSIONS

By means of an attitude test, a survey was made of sex differences in the attitudes of 596 adolescents toward their best friends. The statistically reliable sex differences found are as follows: (1) Boys trust their pals to back them up more than girls do their chums. (2) Boys more than girls envy the success achieved by their best friends in school and in sports. (3) Boys more than girls think that their friends give in to themselves too much. (4) Boys get tired of their pals more than girls do of their chums. (5) Boys more than girls think that their friends take up too much of their time. (6) Boys more often than girls are jealous of their best friends. (7) Girls are more proud than are boys to be seen with their chums. (8) Girls more than boys like their chums too well to give them up. (9) Girls tend to feel lost without their chums more than boys do. (10) Girls more than boys have the attitude that their chums cheer and comfort them.

HIGH-SCHOOL ARCHEOLOGISTS ,

E. R. HARRINGTON

Albuquerque High School, Albuquerque, New Mexico



ALMOST every high-school pupil will read about the civilizations of Egypt, Babylon, Greece, and Rome. He will look at pictures showing the archeological discoveries in the Tombs of the Kings and in Pompeii. Wonderful things! Ancient history is fascinating reading, and the pupil is not long in seeing that the original sources of knowledge are the spade and the trowel of the archeologist. How nice it would be to see some of these treasures unearthed from the ruins of a past civilization! How much nicer, and more instructive, it would be to play a part in the excavation of some ruin and actually to come upon such discoveries! That is what we do in the Albuquerque High School.

We are far down in the "arid Southwest." In 1940 we celebrate the Coronado Cuarto Centennial, which marks the four-hundredth anniversary of the Spanish entry into what is now the United States. Almost eighty years before English settlement on the east coast, these Spanish adventurers came through the valley which some years later was to be the site of Albuquerque. These soldiers and priests found a surprising Indian civilization. Some of the Indians lived on lofty cliffs, or mesas, farming the lowlands and retreating to their eyries when the warlike nomads descended upon them. Some lived in partially walled villages and trusted in numbers to give them safety. Some lived in fortress-like "apartment houses," where more than five hundred persons might live. The adobe houses were almost fire-proof from outside attack, and a five-story building with the final entrance through the roof offered much resistance to an invader.

The Spanish conquistadores saw many such villages during their hunt for the fabled Seven Cities of Cibola, where they expected to find unlimited amounts of gold. In deserted canyons and high up in cracks in massive cliffs, they also saw many extensive ruins—ruins which had been long deserted when Columbus discovered

America, which had been flourishing communities before the hegira of Mohammed, and many of which had been inhabited by the primitive American farmers at the time the Great Nazarene was gathering about him his Twelve Apostles. The conquistadores were not archeologists. Eventually, however, these knights of the spade and trowel came, and an ancient history of the United States began to be revealed.

The Albuquerque High School gives, among other courses in history, a course in the history of the Southwest and a course in archeology. It is likely that both these courses are unique in American high schools. We feel that we have ample justification for both courses. It is as if we had within our state limits the ruins of Babylon, Nineveh, Thebes, and Pompeii and wished to teach a course in ancient history because of their proximity. Not only do we have unsurpassed data available within the state, but our archeology club owns a ruin and is excavating it. What more could be asked, in the study of history, than the opportunity to help add to the history!

Tunque, the ruin which the club has been excavating for the past few years, can be reached from our city in a drive of less than an hour over good roads. Tunque was abandoned fifty years before the discovery of America and was a flourishing village of possibly a thousand persons before the First Crusade. The Indians lived in three two-story apartment houses and ten or more low one-story apartments. The houses were laid out on a definite street plan, and within one house there would be many rooms and a number of families. Two of the great dwellings were located so that the street between could be closed for general defense. The villagers were farmers and artisans, subsisting largely on corn. They made pottery and gained fame as workers in turquoise jewelry, and it is likely that their fame as traders brought them enmity and eventual destruction from surrounding villages. Near the center of their village they built one of the Southwest's largest kivas, or council-rooms. Within this circular, roofed chamber the Tunque city council gathered and decided upon profound matters of state while Richard the Lionhearted was battling Saladin at Acre.

The lives of these ancient people are being brought to light by our high-school archeologists under the capable leadership of Miss Sarah

Goddard, the instructor. Upon seeing the instructor, one would imagine that she would be more interested in a career on the stage or in pictures than in leading a group of archeologists. Miss Goddard has been well trained in Southwestern archeology and commands the greatest scientific regard from the professional archeologists who work for the higher institutions of learning and for the various museums.

In the mild, dry climate of Albuquerque the archeology club can work at almost any season, and scarcely a week passes that a party does not do some excavating in the Tunque ruins. A day of exploration might run something like this: Several members of the group are making a plane-table map of the ruins. Others are engaged in the hard work, involving shovels and wheelbarrows, of excavating the kiva. One worker has uncovered a charred log which was at one time a support of the kiva roof. This log is carefully exhumed, and tree-ring determinations, later made, place its age at 1100 A.D. Another person has found a ceremonial burial place, where a citizen has been interred with some of his equipment to be used in the happy hunting grounds. This burial is very much unlike another that was found, where the bodies were unceremoniously dumped together after a battle. Evidently the latter burials were made by the conquering tribes which finally swarmed in and destroyed the village. Another archeologist has found some turquoise beads, while another has found a piece of pottery still containing some corn flour ground on a stone metate while Genghis Khan was harrying central Asia. Here is some charred corn partially consumed in the final burning of the village, and here is a broken cane flute charred by the same burning. Standing amid the ruins of this dead city, now almost level with the rolling plain to the east, one can imagine the last struggle. Are all the warriors dead? Are the women and the children being led away to slavery by the conquerors? Has the conquering chief decreed, as did the Romans, that this town, like Carthage, shall be forever destroyed? Who can say? These student archeologists are reading history not from a book but from the ruins, even as did Breasted in another continent. They are learning more and more as their findings increase. They are learning history, and they are making history.

The archeology club has a museum, in which it holds its meetings. Here in glass cases have been placed many of the finds that have been made, together with a number of similar articles from other parts of the state and surrounding states. Two life-size katcinas, or Indian dancing gods, look down from murals on the museum walls. Two large replicas of Navajo ceremonial sand paintings take up two other walls. Glass cases line the walls, and in them there are materials from ancient villages in Mexico and Central America: clay images, pottery, a water jar, feather pictures. Another case contains artifacts from the Old Stone Age through the New. Here are some clay katcinas and near by a replica of a Zuñi shrine. Here are found a collection of old beads, some fur and feather cord, some cotton cloth woven before the rise of the Holy Roman Empire, pottery, grinding stones, stones covered with undeciphered hieroglyphics, and even a skeleton from a prehistoric burial place. The club has a large collection of photographs taken in various Southwestern ruins—and the pictures were taken by the pupils themselves. Here is a large plaster-of-paris restoration of the town of Tunque as it looked in its best days, and adjacent to it is a larger model of the kiva.

We believe we have the only archeology club and class in an American high school. Here the dead history lives again because our pupils are studying and making it.

THE RELIABILITY OF THE READING OF AN ENGLISH ESSAY TEST—A SECOND STUDY

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

University of Chicago

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER

Educational Records Bureau, New York City

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THE MEASUREMENT OF ENGLISH USAGE

THE measurement of ability in English composition has long been one of the baffling problems in the evaluation of pupil achievement at all levels of education. The notorious unreliability of the scoring of the ordinary English theme has caused many teachers to abandon it in favor of the more objective test. Objective tests unquestionably have an important place in the measurement of usage in English, but they suffer certain limitations. Ordinarily they make no attempt to find out how well the pupil can write. The pupil is presented with various samples of writing and asked to identify and correct errors or to indicate the relative order of the excellence of the samples. Thus objective tests tend to measure the pupil's knowledge of good English form, but they do not investigate directly his ability to write English. Moreover, they tend to be atomistic; that is, they break down English usage into many specific and measurable details, whereas writing itself is a complex unitary process.

Such considerations as these have led to attempts to find ways of improving English tests of the essay type. Brigham and Stalnaker have been among the most persistent investigators in this area. One of the methods used by Stalnaker in his early efforts to obtain samples of the writing of college Freshmen was to provide them with groups of notes and to ask them to write essays based on the notes. Carefully trained specialists in English—usually advanced graduate students—then read the papers with certain specific objectives in mind. Such a procedure has resulted in reading reliabilities ranging

from .70 to .98.¹ Current interest in the problem is indicated by a paper read at the 1939 Educational Conference in New York City and later published in the *Educational Record*.²

AN EARLIER STUDY IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Stalnaker's favorable results with Freshmen at the University of Chicago encouraged the present writers several years ago to apply the same procedure to pupils in the University High School. Two forms of a two-hour essay test entitled "The Discovery of Gold in California" (Form A) and "The Pony Express" (Form B) were constructed. A set of instructions for writing the paper and rather extensive notes on each topic were supplied to the pupils. The entire paper was to be written from the notes, which were presented in incomplete sentences similar to the form in which the pupil might have taken them in his own preparation for writing. The test was designed to approximate, as closely as possible, the kind of writing situation frequently met by the pupil in his ordinary school work. The following excerpts are taken from Form A of the test.

INSTRUCTIONS

1. The problem is to write a paper on "The Discovery of Gold in California." You are provided with an outline for your paper as well as a set of notes. The notes have been taken from several books and magazine articles. Imagine that you have gone to the library and taken these notes yourself. Using all the notes, write an orderly account of the discovery of gold in California. This is a test of your ability to write a composition rather than of your knowledge of the subject. Therefore you should not include material not contained in the notes.

The notes are grouped according to the divisions of the outline, and your paper should follow those divisions. The notes within each group are not in logical order. You are to take the notes in each group and rearrange and write them in your own words. You will, of course, write your paper in complete sentences. Your task is to write an orderly, well-organized, and interesting composition.

2. The paper may be from three to five pages in length. You are not to copy your paper but are to hand in the first draft.

3. The time of the examination is two hours.

¹ John M. Stalnaker, "Tests of Acceptable and Reliable Habits of Writing," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXIII (January, 1934), 44.

² Edward S. Noyes, "Recent Trends in the Comprehensive Examination in English," *Educational Record*, Supplement No. 13, XXI (January, 1940), 107-19.

OUTLINE

- I. The situation in California before the discovery of gold
- II. The discovery of gold
- III. The rush to the gold fields
- IV. The effect of the discovery on California and the world

NOTES

Group 1

Few people had heard of California in 1847. Two years later people all over the world were talking about California.

About 2,000 people lived in territory now known as California. Most near San Francisco Bay.

Territory was a quiet, peaceful place. People confident of the future.

One of the early settlements in California was Sutter's Fort. At junction of Sacramento and American Rivers, near the site of present city of Sacramento. Was settled by Captain John A. Sutter in 1839. Sort of trading post on route traveled by immigrants.

Sutter a leading representative of American interests in California. Capable man. Well respected. Later became very well known.

The two forms of the test were administered in June, 1934, to 106 pupils in the Junior class of the University High School of the University of Chicago. The papers were read by two graduate students in English in the University of Chicago who had had a great deal of experience in reading essay examinations. Each paper was scored on a basis of ten points distributed as follows: completeness and accuracy, 2; mechanics, 3; and coherence, 5. The correlations between the scores assigned by the two readers were $.944 \pm .011$ for Form A and $.845 \pm .028$ for Form B.¹ It is obvious that the reader reliability was definitely high, especially for Form A. The correlation between the scores on Form A and those on Form B was $.60 \pm .04$. This correlation, although not high, indicates decidedly greater reliability than that of the average English theme.

PROBLEMS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The results of the study just cited were sufficiently encouraging to warrant the introduction of the same English essay test on an experimental basis as a part of the regular evaluation program of the Uni-

¹ Arthur E. Traxler and Harold A. Anderson, "The Reliability of an Essay Test in English," *School Review*, XLIII (September, 1935), 534-39.

versity High School. After records had been obtained for a number of years, it seemed desirable to undertake another study of a wider scope in order to verify the findings obtained earlier and to attack certain new problems. The problems undertaken in the second study were as follows: (1) to investigate the reliability of the scores assigned by the same reader on two different readings, not only in terms of total score, but also in terms of scores on various aspects of English composition; (2) to study the agreement between the scores assigned to the same essays by two different readers; (3) to find out whether readers can read more reliably for errors in mechanics than for such factors of general excellence as coherence and organization of materials; (4) to ascertain the amount of growth in language ability, as represented by this test from year to year in the high school, and to discover in what areas the growth is most pronounced.

HOW THE DATA WERE OBTAINED

Near the beginning of the school year, Form A of the test, "The Discovery of Gold in California," was administered to 288 pupils in the University High School, including 59 Sub-freshmen, 89 Freshmen, 71 Sophomores, and 69 Juniors. Form B, "The Pony Express," was given a year later to 430 pupils, including 73 Sub-freshmen, 90 Freshmen, 105 Sophomores, 86 Juniors, and 76 Seniors. Both forms of the test were taken by 281 pupils. In the second year 59 of these pupils were in the Freshman class, 86 in the Sophomore class, 71 in the Junior class, and 65 in the Senior class.

The tests were not scored immediately after they were given but were filed in the pupils' individual folders, where they were available for use by the instructors in appraising, on a subjective basis, the growth of pupils in English. It was found that, even though the papers were not scored at this time, they did have value for guidance and teaching.

For purposes of the present study, the papers were taken from the folders, and the name, the date, and the grade level were removed from the essays. Each essay was given a number corresponding to the number on a master-list of all the pupils. Thus the readers did not know, as they scored a paper, the identity nor the grade level of the writer of the essay.

The services of an advanced graduate student in the Department of English were obtained in scoring the essays. Whereas the essays in the first study had been scored on a scale of only ten points, in the present study a sixty-point scale was employed, weighted as follows: accuracy, 6; completeness, 6; spelling, 6; punctuation, 6; language errors, 6; coherence between main divisions, 10; organization of paragraphs, 10; and organization of sentences, 10. The main responsibility for the scoring in this study rested on one reader, but the services of a second reader, also a graduate student in English, were obtained in order to check the scores assigned by the first reader to a sampling of the papers.

Detailed directions for scoring the essays were prepared for the guidance of both readers. They conferred with each other and with those in charge of the study until agreement was reached concerning just what was meant by every detail of the instructions. Frequent reference to the set of directions reduced appreciably the subjective element in the scoring. No scores were entered on the essay booklets themselves. The reader's rating on each item—accuracy, completeness, spelling, punctuation, language errors, and so forth—was tabulated on master sheets opposite the number of the essay, with the total score as the last item. All the scoring was done under the personal direction and close supervision of the writers.

THE FINDINGS

Reliability of first and second readings of same reader.—As already indicated, one of the problems of the study was to ascertain the reliability of repeated readings by the same scorer. In other words, would a reader of an essay test in English assign scores on two readings that were alike or nearly alike when the readings were separated by an interval of several days? In seeking an answer to this question, the writers inserted into the pile of unread essays, without the reader's knowledge, a number of essays which had been read previously. Since no marks had been placed on the papers, the reader was unaware that he was scoring the paper a second time. Even if he had suspected that he had been over the same paper before, he had no record of his scores, since they were systematically turned in to the supervisors of the study at the end of each day. Reader A (the

scorer who did the greater share of the reading) re-read seventy papers on Form A, "The Gold Rush," with a correlation of $.893 \pm .016$. He re-read sixty-eight papers on Form B, "The Pony Express," with a correlation of $.937 \pm .010$. These data show that a single reader can be trained to read English essay tests with high reliability.

Reliability of two readers.—Another question raised in the study was concerned with what the correlation would be if a second reader using the same set of directions were asked to score the papers. Reader B read twenty-five "Gold Rush" papers and twenty-five "Pony Express" papers taken at random from the two sets. The correlations between the scores of the two readers on each set of twenty-five papers were as follows: Form A, $.859 \pm .035$; Form B, $.898 \pm .026$. It will be observed that these correlation coefficients agree well with those obtained in the first study for two different readers and that the correlations between the scores assigned by the two readers are about as high as the correlations between the first and the second readings of the same scorer. The data in the two studies and those reported earlier by Stalnaker provide strong evidence that it is possible to train a group of readers who will not vary greatly among themselves in the scores which they assign to essay tests in English.

Reliability in reading for separate factors.—It has been asserted frequently that the essay test cannot be read reliably when items such as organization and coherence of ideas are to be measured. For that reason the writers were eager to get separate scores for the eight separate aspects selected for study. In Table 1 are given (1) the correlations between the first and the second readings on each of the eight parts by Reader A on seventy "Gold Rush" papers and sixty-eight "Pony Express" papers and (2) the correlations between the readings by Reader A and Reader B on twenty-five "Gold Rush" papers and twenty-five "Pony Express" papers.

This table reveals some variability in the correlations, but, with the exception of two of the correlations for accuracy and one for organization of sentences, all are fairly high. It is interesting to observe that two of the aspects of the test, coherence of main divisions and organization of paragraphs, that are usually considered to be

rather intangible were read with relatively high reliability, while accuracy, which should be one of the most objective phases, was read with the lowest reliability. Three of the four reliability coefficients for the scores on organization of paragraphs are above .90. Two of those for coherence of main divisions are above .90, and the other two are close to .80. On the whole, Table 1 provides evidence not only that readers can be trained to assign reliable total scores to essay tests in English but also that they can be trained to score,

TABLE 1

CORRELATIONS (1) BETWEEN SCORES ASSIGNED BY READER A ON FIRST AND SECOND READINGS OF FORMS A AND B AND (2) BETWEEN SCORES ASSIGNED BY READER A AND READER B ON FORMS A AND B OF ESSAY TEST IN ENGLISH

PART OF TEST	FIRST AND SECOND READINGS OF READER A		READER A AND READER B		MEAN
	Form A	Form B	Form A	Form B	
Accuracy.....	.636 ± .048	.748 ± .036	.216 ± .129	.353 ± .118	.488
Completeness.....	.866 ± .021	.925 ± .012	.868 ± .033	.569 ± .091	.805
Spelling.....	.870 ± .020	.911 ± .014	.763 ± .056	.803 ± .027	.859
Punctuation.....	.755 ± .035	.856 ± .022	.609 ± .085	.812 ± .046	.758
Language errors.....	.830 ± .025	.821 ± .027	.740 ± .061	.844 ± .039	.809
Coherence of main divisions.....	.919 ± .013	.912 ± .014	.799 ± .049	.795 ± .050	.856
Organization of paragraphs.....	.942 ± .011	.940 ± .010	.912 ± .023	.867 ± .034	.915
Organization of sentences.....	.697 ± .041	.789 ± .031	.304 ± .122	.622 ± .076	.613
All parts.....	.893 ± .016	.937 ± .010	.859 ± .035	.898 ± .026	.897

with rather high reliability, various aspects of English ability revealed by the essays.

Growth in language ability.—A fourth important phase of the study was concerned with the value of the English essay test for showing growth in general language ability from year to year through the high school. Do the pupils make enough improvement in writing essays of this kind to cause their growth to be revealed by increased scores? The data relating to growth in general language ability also throw light on the validity of the test, since it may be assumed that, on the average, pupils do improve in ability to use written English

as they advance through the secondary school. Table 2 shows the number of pupils in each class who took both forms of the test, the number who gained, the number who lost, the number who neither gained nor lost, and the mean gain.

Of the 281 pupils who wrote essays for both forms of the test, 191 made higher scores the second year than the first, 80 made lower scores, and 10 neither gained nor lost. The mean gain for the whole group was 3.3 points. The mean gain was greatest from the Freshman to the Sophomore year and least from the Junior to the Senior year.

TABLE 2
CHANGE MADE IN ONE YEAR BY 281 PUPILS OF FOUR CLASSES
WHO TOOK BOTH FORMS OF ESSAY TEST IN ENGLISH

Class	Total Number of Pupils	Number of Pupils Who Gained on Test	Number of Pupils Who Lost on Test	Number of Pupils Who Neither Gained nor Lost on Test	Mean Gain
Freshman.....	59	39	19	1	2.8
Sophomore.....	86	61	19	6	4.4
Junior.....	71	52	18	1	3.8
Senior.....	65	39	24	2	2.1
Total.....	281	191	80	10	3.3

For the groups and for about two-thirds of the individuals in the whole group, the test shows growth in English ability. It is difficult to reconcile the fact that eighty pupils lost in score with what is known about pupil development in general. It is altogether possible that some of the pupils did in fact write poorer essays the second year than the first, but one would expect that such cases would be relatively few in number.

The mean gain of 3.3 in a year's time on a sixty-point scale seems at first thought rather small. However, an inspection of the results of objective tests in English indicates that the growth is about as much as one would expect to find on an objective test with the same number of points.

Another way of studying the power of the test to discriminate

between successive ability levels is by comparing the mean scores of the different classes on the same form of the test. This procedure involves an assumption that the brightness of the pupils remains con-

TABLE 3
MEAN SCORES OF PUPILS IN FOUR CLASSES ON EACH PART
OF ESSAY TEST IN ENGLISH, FORM A

Part of Test	Sub-freshman (59)	Freshman (89)	Sophomore (71)	Junior (69)
Accuracy.....	4.7	4.4	4.3	4.7
Completeness.....	2.8	3.2	3.6	4.2
Spelling.....	3.6	3.4	3.9	4.2
Punctuation.....	3.6	3.3	3.4	3.8
Language errors.....	2.4	2.8	3.3	3.6
Coherence between main divisions.....	6.1	6.6	7.4	7.6
Organization of paragraphs.....	4.4	3.8	3.2	4.4
Organization of sentences.....	4.4	5.6	5.2	6.0
All parts.....	32.0	33.1	34.3	38.5

TABLE 4
MEAN SCORES OF PUPILS IN FIVE CLASSES ON EACH PART
OF ESSAY TEST IN ENGLISH, FORM B

Part of Test	Sub-freshman (73)	Freshman (90)	Sophomore (105)	Junior (86)	Senior (76)
Accuracy.....	3.9	4.9	4.6	4.8	4.9
Completeness.....	3.1	4.4	3.9	4.1	4.4
Spelling.....	2.0	3.4	3.8	4.0	3.9
Punctuation.....	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.6
Language errors.....	1.5	2.8	3.2	3.7	4.0
Coherence between main divisions.....	4.5	5.7	6.3	5.9	6.7
Organization of paragraphs.....	3.0	5.0	5.5	4.6	5.3
Organization of sentences.....	4.6	5.7	6.7	7.3	7.5
All parts.....	25.5	34.9	37.2	37.9	40.3

stant from grade level to grade level, but it avoids any question of equivalence in difficulty of the two forms. The mean scores by classes on each part of Form A and Form B are shown in Tables 3 and 4.

It will be observed that, so far as total scores are concerned, there is increase in score with increase in grade level in every instance.

However, there is not a consistent increase on all the parts, particularly accuracy, punctuation, and organization of paragraphs in the Form A data. The growth is somewhat larger and more consistent in completeness, mastery of language errors, coherence between main divisions, and organization of sentences than in the other phases of language usage included in the test. On the whole there is evidence that the test provides fair discrimination among the different grades.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The study indicates that, by carefully formulating the test material and training the readers, it is possible to obtain highly reliable readings of essay examinations. Not only is the reliability high for the total score, but it is also fairly high for most of the eight aspects of English usage that were included in this study. The reliability is higher for some of those aspects that are usually regarded as fairly intangible than for the aspects that one would expect to be objective and tangible. The test makes fair, though by no means perfect, discrimination among the various years of the secondary school in the ability of the pupils to write a composition based on notes supplied to them. The results of the study are not offered as conclusive, but it is believed that, when they are considered along with the results of earlier studies, they suggest that it is highly desirable for schools to experiment with essay-test procedures as means for supplementing the results of objective tests of English usage in a comprehensive program of evaluation in English expression.

A DIFFERENTIATED READING PROGRAM FOR FRENCH

VERA L. PEACOCK

Southern Illinois Normal University, Carbondale, Illinois

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A CURE FOR LOSS OF PUPILS' INTEREST

ONE of the most frequent and difficult problems in foreign-language teaching is the sudden loss of interest apparent in many pupils after the first few weeks of the initial term. The novelty of the foreign words wears off at about the time the grammatical difficulties begin, and the combination is too much for a large number of pupils. Experienced teachers acquire over a period of years numerous devices for stimulating new interest and simplifying these early problems, but few instructors are consistently successful in wholly eliminating either this initial slump or the later ones which threaten at intervals during the first two years. One device which many teachers admit will bring results but which they feel to be too difficult to organize is the differentiation of reading materials according to the interest range of the pupils at all levels. Such a reading program entails extra work and does not lend itself to a neatly organized schedule, but it creates and holds the interest of the pupils and challenges the teacher to find and to adapt new materials.

A differentiated reading program may be carried out in a class of any size without special sectioning or the expenditure of additional time. It is true that one group—pupils interested in music and especially those who wish to sing—would profit immensely from more emphasis on pronunciation than the ordinary class can receive. If the teacher finds it possible during part of the period once or twice a week to give that group special instruction in oral work while the other pupils are busy on their individual or group reading projects, so much the better. The main interest of these pupils can be served, however, in their French work whether such special training is possible or not, just as the dominant interests of other groups can deter-

mine whether they read French history, economics, poetry, geography, or science.

Use of this type of reading program does not mean that a pupil begins at the fourth week to read about chemistry and reads nothing else for two years. Part of the materials should certainly engage the entire class at the same time. Those materials in the regular textbook which form the basis for the usual oral and written drills will, of course, be studied by all the pupils, and a number of bright, easy anecdotes or any selections of general interest might be used in the same fashion. There is danger, however, in postponing the differentiation of the selections until their value in stimulating interest is less than it might be. As soon as the pupil can read about little Jacques's orphaned childhood and adventures on an uncle's farm, he can read about Napoleon and Ravel, which he will probably find vastly more interesting. Articles about the radio or *les chasseurs alpins* written in simple French are, of course, harder to find than stories about little Jacques, but they do not insult the intelligence of the pupils. Why should we suppose that a high-school boy will be glad to learn a foreign language for the great privilege of reading a story that he would not think of reading in English?

Probably the most satisfactory organization of the differentiated program is based on groups interested in the same project. Let us take a beginning class of thirty-five pupils whose interests divide them into groups of five who will read science; eight who will read social science; three, art; seven, literature; four, music; and eight who do not profess a burning interest in much of anything but who may be tempted by sporting news or detective stories. Where shall we find materials for these groups and how shall we organize the recitation to keep each pupil interested in the work of his group and to some extent curious about what the other groups are doing?

MATERIALS FOR DIFFERENTIATED PROGRAM

For all groups.—There are, fortunately, two extensive sources of materials from which selections to fit all these groups may be drawn very early in the first term: newspapers and the omnibus reader.

Simple news sheets published in this country for high-school pupils, such as *Le Petit journal*, *La Vie*, *La Voix de France*, and *Voyons*,

provide a wide variety of articles on all sorts of subjects written in very easy French. Similar publications easily obtainable in this country are the Canadian paper *Le Français à la page* and one in England called *La France*. More difficult papers such as *Courrier des Etats-Unis* and *Amérique* are suitable for second year and pave the way for French publications, such as *L'Illustration*, *Revue des deux mondes*, or one of the great Parisian dailies. A most useful magazine for more advanced pupils is the digest which, like our *Reader's Digest*, contains articles in abbreviated form taken from publications in all the French-speaking countries. *Voici*, put out by the French Book Selection Club, *Le Recueil*, published in Canada, and *The French Digest* (supplement only in French) are the best known of these digests.

Next to the magazines and newspapers in variety stand the readers which aim to give the student a comprehension of French civilization. Such books as Havens and Moore's *Easy French Readings*, Pumphrey's *A French Reader for Beginners*, Hills and Dondo's *La France*, Haxo's *Elementary French Reader*, the *Heath Graded French Readings*, and Bovée's *Aventures par la lecture* contain articles on history, geography, science, art, music, and education, as well as tales and easy poems, all quite within the grasp of first-year pupils. From these they may pass to the more difficult textbooks: Haxo's *Intermediate French Reader*; Dodge, Mendel, and Caro-Delvaille's *La France vivante*; Weill's *French Newspaper Reader*; Carter, McCary, and Nollet's *La France d'aujourd'hui et d'hier*; Pargment's *Gens et choses de France*; and Lebert, Schwarz, and Ernst's *Visages de la France*; and in the third year to such books as Denoeu's *Petit miroir de la civilisation française* and Gifford's *La France à travers les siècles*.

For pupils interested in science.—Some of the groups in this class of thirty-five will have to depend very largely on omnibus readers and news articles for their special-interest assignments in the first year. Until the second year the science group, for example, will find it difficult to use scientific readers like Alberse's *Chemical French Reader*, Williams' *Technical and Scientific French*, Bowen's *First Scientific French Reader*, or Sas's *Les Grands savants français*. In the second year this group also takes interest in biographies, like *Madame Curie*. Some, more interested in geography, may prefer Bassett's

geographical reader, *La Carte de France*, Kullmer and Gérard's *Sketch Maps of France*, or Palfrey and Holbrook's *Chez les français*.

For pupils interested in social science.—The social-science group, on the other hand, will find many more beginning books dealing with their subjects: Lavisé's *Histoire de France*, Moffett's *Récits historiques*, and Bond's *Terre de France: Premières lectures*, to mention a few. Later, Bagley's *Great Men of France*; Funck-Brentano's *L'Ancien régime*; Brodin, Chapard, and Boorsch's *La Révolution française (La France d'hier et d'aujourd'hui, No. 1)*; Lenôtre's *Le Roi Louis XVII*; Lanson and Desseignet's *La France et sa civilisation*; Michelet's *Histoire de France*; and Weill's *Historical French Reader* will prove stimulating.

For pupils interested in literature.—For the pupils interested in literature good beginning textbooks are Mullins' *Six farces d'antan*; some of Bond's graded readers in the Heath-Chicago French Series, such as *Aucassin et Nicolette*, *Les Pauvres gens*, and *L'Attaque du Moulin*; Goddard and Rosselet's *Introduction à Molière*; Voltaire's *Zadig, and Other Stories*; Williams' *Aucassin et Nicolette and Four Lais of Marie de France*; and Maeterlinck's *Pelléas et Mélisande et Intérieur*. Later may come Miller's *First Readings in French Literature* and Gauss and Grubbs's *First Readings in French Masterpieces*. The two last-named books mark a recent effort to provide interesting reading from the best of French literature at a lower level of language mastery than has hitherto been considered possible. Poetry, frequently neglected in early reading, may provide variety for this group if the teacher will choose well. For example, the poems in Haxo's *Intermediate French Reader*, a book generally suitable for second year, may well be read in the first year. It is easy enough, of course, to find good books for the literary group at and beyond the intermediate level.

For pupils interested in art and music.—In the beginning the art and music groups, like those interested in science, will find most of their materials in the omnibus textbooks. Mention should be made, however, of pamphlets such as those in the *Encyclopédie par l'image* series dealing with cathedrals, statues, paintings, the dance, and other phases of art; and, for the music students, collections of French

songs and librettos of French operas. Wilkinson's *French Operatic Readings* will also interest the latter group. These two groups may receive suggestions for further reading in their fields through their correspondence with French students.

For pupils with no special interests.—For the group of pupils who evince no special interests and who find conventional French readers exceedingly dull, there are tales of adventure and mystery which ought to arouse an interest if anything will. Easy stories, like Kästner's *Emile et les détectives*, Ceppi's *Le Casque invisible*, and Bond's adaptations of Dumas' *Sept-d'un-coup* and of Hugo's *Les Misérables* under the title *Les Chandeliers de l'évêque*, lead to regular detective stories, such as Leblanc's *Arsène Lupin*, Priwin's *L'Inspecteur Hornleigh sur la piste*, and Aveline's *Voiture 7, Place 15*. Some of more literary value are Dale and Dale's *Tales of Adventure and Romance*; Loftus' *Reflets étranges*; Schwarz's *Contemporary French Stories of Mystery and Fantasy*; Tharp's *Fantastic French Fiction of Mystery and Emotion*; Dodge, Caro-Delvaille, and Mendel's *Quelque chose de nouveau*; and especially Saint Exupéry's *Vol de nuit*.

THE RECITATION

In organizing the recitation on special readings, the teacher will have two aims: (1) to give each group as much opportunity as possible to impress the others and (2) to introduce variety into the reports. Timeliness is always a useful stimulus. If the music group can tell their classmates something about Mérimée and Bizet in the week that the Metropolitan broadcasts "Carmen," so much the better. The science group might take the floor in the week "Pasteur" comes to town, and the history group prepare the way for "Marie Antoinette" or "Conquest." The literature group might tell something about each of the French plays presented in the Great Plays Series over the National Broadcasting Company network. A booklet giving the order of these plays can be secured so that the group's reading may be timed to correspond with the broadcasts. The Picasso exhibition, which found its way this past winter into the rotogravure sections of the Sunday editions and into colored reproductions in *Life*, offers a fine opportunity to the art group.

Variety in the recitation, important in any class, is easier to provide in one made up of small groups. Occasional dramatizations of the materials, incorporating them in poster or booklet form or in a hectographed newspaper, using them in composition work and in the pupils' correspondence with French children or in the preparation of an exhibit offer stimulating variations on more conventional types of procedure. Another project of value is to allow a group to present a series of slides after working up the running comment from materials sent out by the film libraries. Such projects often involve extra or more difficult reading assignments than the group as a whole is capable of handling. These give the pupil who masters the language more easily and quickly than his fellows the additional work necessary to keep him interested and to win for him the approbation of the others in his group who profit from his ability, rather than the resentment so often shown the bright boy by the average pupils.

THE COST

The cost of the differentiated reading program need not be greater than that of the usual type. In the first two years, at least three short or two longer readers are generally used, which for our class of thirty-five would probably cost over one hundred dollars. Since the newspapers and the omnibus readers may be passed around among the groups, a small number of each would suffice, and about half of the sum could be left for the specialized books, most of which are very inexpensive. In classes where the books are provided by the school, a fine library of a large range could be built up in a short time at a small yearly cost.

ADVANTAGES OF DIFFERENTIATED READING PROGRAM

The advantages to the pupil of such a system lie in increased interest in the daily chore, a wider comprehension of the varied aspects of French civilization gained from the reports of the other groups, and a sense of responsibility in conveying to his classmates a clear idea of France's contributions in his own field of interest. For the teacher there is true stimulation in discovering and using a wide variety of materials of current interest and in adapting them to the everyday life of the pupil.

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SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON
University of Pittsburgh

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GUIDANCE workers continue extensive employment of scientific method in the study of their problems. Over half of the items listed in this bibliography are reports of original researches, while a number of others draw heavily on the existing literature of scientific studies. To assert that objective techniques are more extensively employed in 1940 than they were in 1930 would be to take a position difficult to prove. It can be said, however, that some areas now being studied objectively were scarcely recognized a decade ago and that our knowledge of older areas has been greatly refined. Other developments of the thirties which are revealed by a canvass of this bibliography are the trend toward broad studies of youth, in school and out, and the growing participation of governmental agencies in basic guidance research.

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¹ See also Item 614 (Holmes) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1939, number of the *School Review*.

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436. EMBREE, ROYAL B., JR., and EGGERTSEN, CLAUDE. "A Plan for the Induction of Student Teachers into the Training School Guidance Program," *Education*, LX (December, 1939), 247-51.
Describes how student teachers at the University of Minnesota High School obtain practice in the exercise of the guidance function.

437. GREENLEAF, WALTER J., and BREWSTER, ROYCE E. *Public High Schools Having Counselors and Guidance Officers*. United States Office of Education, Misc. 2267, 1939. Pp. 40.
Presents summary tables and a directory.

438. HAMRIN, SHIRLEY A., and ERICKSON, CLIFFORD E. *Guidance in the Secondary School*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xii+466.
A textbook designed primarily for undergraduates preparing for secondary-school teaching.

439. *Individual Guidance in a CCC Camp*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1939. Pp. viii+44.
Reports an experimental study using the equivalent-group method. Individual guidance doubled the amount of time that enrollees gave to educational work and greatly improved the quality of the work.

440. JUDD, CHARLES H. "The Induction of Young People into Adulthood," *School Review*, XLVIII (March, 1940), 181-92.
Useful for the perspective in which it places the present problem of youth.

441. LEONARD, EUGENIE A. "WPA, Here We Come!" *School and Society*, LI (March 30, 1940), 393-99.
Analysis of a high-school graduating class, showing vividly the implications for guidance and curriculum.

442. *The Position of the Negro in the American Social Order*. Journal of Negro Education, Yearbook Number, VIII. Washington: Bureau of Educational Research, Howard University, 1939. Pp. 261-616.
A number of chapters illuminate the problems of guidance of this racial minority.

443. *Pupil Personnel, Guidance, and Counseling*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. IX, No. 2. Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1939. Pp. 143-252.
Summaries of researches on pupils, school organization and classroom adjustment, programs and techniques of guidance and counseling.

444. ROEMER, JOSEPH, and HOOVER, OLIVER. *The Dean of Boys in High School*. New York: American Book Co., 1939. Pp. viii+94.
Based on responses of sixty-four deans of boys to a questionnaire, this publication shows the deanship to be ill-defined.

445. RUCH, GILES M., and SEGEL, DAVID. *Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance*. United States Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 202, Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 2, 1940. Pp. vi+84.
Enumerates the items of information that should appear in the cumulative-record folder and discusses the value of each.

446. SHAW, ROBERT W. "Pitfalls in the Path of Adolescent Vocational Initiative," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XIII (February, 1940), 352-59.
A thoughtful discussion of the principal reasons why "adolescent initiative in the direction of self-development and service has been widely stagnated" in contemporary life.

447. STURTEVANT, SARAH M., STRANG, RUTH, and MCKIM, MARGARET. *Trends in Student Personnel Work*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 787. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. 110.
A survey, made by questionnaire, to determine prevalence of deans of women and deans of girls, their academic preparation, teaching load, salary, and functions performed.

448. THORNDIKE, E. L. *Human Nature and the Social Order*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. xx+1020.
By virtue of its illumination of many fundamental human drives with which the counselor must reckon in both the distributive and the adjustive phases of guidance, this comprehensive, wide-ranging interpretation of human nature has basic values for the guidance worker.

449. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "A Cumulative-Record Form for the Elementary School," *Elementary School Journal*, XL (September, 1939), 45-54.
Emphasizes values of a cumulative-record folder for guidance and for admission to the secondary school. Presents an example of such a comprehensive record form.

450. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. (editor). *Guidance in Public Secondary Schools*. A Report of the Public School Demonstration Project in Educational Guidance. Educational Records Bulletin No. 28. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1939. Pp. xxvi+330.
Reports from seven secondary schools which have been carrying on a subsidized guidance program for five years. Especially featured are the functions of measurement and cumulative-record keeping.

451. WILLIAMSON, E. G. *How To Counsel Students*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xx+562.

A comprehensive treatment of individual counseling on both the secondary and the collegiate levels. The several parts under which the book is organized are as follows: "An Outline of Clinical Techniques," "Personality Problems," "Problems of Educational Orientation and Achievement," "Problems of Occupational Orientation," "Financial Problems," and "Health Problems."

452. WILLIAMSON, E. G., and HAHN, M. E. *Introduction to High School Counseling*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. x+314.

A textbook intended primarily for undergraduates in colleges of education and designed to give prospective teachers a practical, nontechnical acquaintance with the counseling function.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

RESEARCH AND EXPERIENCE AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.—Fortunately, along with the growth in the scope and the complexity of secondary-school management which has accompanied the popularization of secondary education and the expansion of the educational offerings, there has developed, through research and experience, a vast amount of knowledge dealing with the problems of administering a secondary school. While the contributions of the research workers and of the experienced administrators have appeared either in educational publications or in graduate dissertations, their value in the solution of problems of administration is limited, particularly because of the variety of sources in which these contributions are reported. It therefore becomes necessary, if these contributions are to reach their major effectiveness, for competent writers in the field of secondary education to digest therefrom significant principles and practices and to present their interpretations in a form readily accessible to the large body of men and women who administer, or are preparing to administer, secondary schools.

The authors of a new treatise¹ on secondary-school administration have recognized this need and for their factual material have drawn on hundreds of special studies. The magnitude of such a task will be appreciated after one has had an opportunity to examine this publication, even though it is limited in scope to a treatment of the problems of internal organization and management, problems of supervision and general principles of secondary education being excluded. Although the importance of problems pertaining to, for example, the objectives of secondary education, methods of instruction, the secondary-school population, and external organization is recognized, excluding them from consideration, except in connection with related topics for assuring comprehensiveness, has enabled the authors to confine within a single volume a treatment of the major problems which are encountered in organizing and managing a single school unit offering a program on the secondary level.

In harmony with their concept of administration, the authors devote approximately half the book to a consideration of problems concerned with organizing and managing the educational program and the other half to a consideration of the problems of the professional staff, business and office management,

¹ Leonard V. Koos, James M. Hughes, Percival W. Hutson, and William C. Reavis, *Administering the Secondary School*. New York: American Book Co., 1940. Pp. xii+678. \$3.25.

and public relations. Included in the first portion are, in the order of their presentation, an introductory chapter setting forth the scope and function of administration and chapters on the program of studies, the vocational program, the health program, the extra-curriculum, the guidance program, the program for individual differences, and the schedule. Specific chapter headings in the second portion have to do with the selection and the rating of teachers, the adjustment of the teaching load, the salary problem, the administrative personnel, buildings and grounds, equipment and supplies, office standards and practices, the administration of finance, and the relation of school and community.

While the book contains many meritorious features, its treatment of the problems of vocational education, so far as they apply to organization and management, is especially noteworthy. Problems of guidance also receive special recognition comparable to their significance in the administrative program. Although many of the problems of administration are common to schools of different enrolments, special consideration is given, whenever necessary, to problems of large and of small schools. Since the authors have had experience in directing the affairs of secondary schools and in teaching courses in secondary-school administration, they have approached, in their selection of topics for treatment and in their interpretations, a balanced recognition of the theoretical and the practical aspects of administration.

In view of the comprehensiveness of the treatise as a whole, omission or brief mention of a few problems may be justifiable and excusable, especially since "Selected References" appear at the end of each chapter, except the first, and studies referred to in the text are cited in footnotes. Even though the topics of pupil control and interscholastic athletics are discussed briefly, they do not receive the completeness of treatment warranted by the number of problems under these categories that must be solved by the principal or his assistants. Space devoted to a discussion of curriculum organization might have been utilized to greater advantage, in the opinion of the reviewer, in a consideration of administrative procedures essential for the co-operative study of curriculum problems and for the identification of objectives in a given school.

This volume, because of its distinctive features and qualities, should find a prominent place in the literature on secondary-school administration. By drawing on their own experience and by interpreting the findings of research, the reports of practices in schools of various sizes, and the results of surveys, such as the National Survey of Secondary Education, Koos and his collaborators have presented a book which should make, if it is studied by administrators in service and students in training, a significant contribution toward the improvement of practices in administering secondary schools.

DONALD L. SIMON

*Bloomington Junior and Senior High School
Bloomington, Indiana*

GENES AND SOCIETY.—Much comment has appeared regarding the possibility of increased objectivity in social-science fields, such as economics, government, and law, with a basis resting largely on factual material from other fields. Biology, psychology, and anthropology have been suggested as possible sources from which to draw. In a recent book Thorndike¹ urges this objectivity, maintaining that "the welfare of mankind now depends upon the sciences of man" (p. v) and hoping that an improvement in predictive value of these sciences may come through basing theory and practice increasingly on objective data.

The book, addressed "not only to college students of the social sciences, but also to thinking men and women" (p. v), includes thirty-eight chapters grouped into two parts. Part I, fifteen chapters, is largely factual material considered basic for policies and practices in human relations, and Part II consists largely of implications of these facts for social science. There is, however, overlapping between the two parts.

The first two chapters deal mainly with Thorndike's S→R interpretation of learning and its relation to the prediction of human behavior. Three chapters are devoted to abilities, with attention to their genetic origin, specificity, inter-relationships, and possibilities of being scaled. Another three chapters relate to wants—the measurement of wants and their relation to abilities and propensities. Wants are inventoried and considered in relation to satisfactions and annoyances and to customs. Chapters ix–xii treat individual differences (measurement, scope, and causes) with some treatment of causal factors relating to abilities, wants, and propensities. Two chapters deal with conflicts of wants, with conscience, and with the emergence of systems of valuation. Chapter xv (11 pages), "Living by Science," briefly summarizes Part I.

The first four chapters of Part II deal with philanthropy and welfare and consider the nature of the good life and the means of attaining it; short- and long-range programs for improving welfare through eliminating "bad" genes and "bad" men; and the role of knowledge, wealth, and wants in human welfare. Chapters xx–xxviii are devoted to economic subjects: business ethics, supply and demand, natural resources and capital, labor and management, wages, buying and selling, money and credit, ownership, and the psychology of capitalism and of alternative economic systems. The remaining chapters, except the last, give consideration to law and government, with emphasis on the possible development of a more scientific approach in these fields: three chapters relate to political science and the criteria of good government; three relate to rulers, the ruled (citizens), and methods of ruling; and a chapter on the aims of government then precedes two chapters on law and human nature and on possibilities of improving the law. A summary chapter (7 pages), "Human Nature and Reform," reiterates the possibility of modern man's controlling his fate and toward that end sets forth twenty "sound principles of action."

Six appendixes, covering twenty-one pages, and thirty-four tables in the text

¹ E. L. Thorndike, *Human Nature and the Social Order*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. xx+1020.

present data and develop certain considerations. Extensive footnotes often elaborate peripheral items. There is a useful sixteen-page index.

Many psychologists will be skeptical of the heavy burden which the author places on genes, particularly in the chapters on individual differences and the causes of these differences and in the chapters on philanthropy and welfare. Specific items in point are sprinkled throughout the book: the influence of genes "varying from probably 70 per cent or more in the case of defective intelligence to 3 per cent or less in the case of broken arms and legs" (p. 471); sex difference in crime resulting from "the stronger original bent of men toward violent action and of women toward kindly behavior" (p. 479); the causality of women's "stronger original tendencies to kindly behavior" in that "women so quickly put men out of the profession of nursing, and figure so numerously among social workers, and monopolized the kindergarten" (p. 499); the supply of tenors as limited primarily by genes (p. 563).

Some economists will probably find the author's defense of capitalism and of large areas of the economic *status quo* in America—particularly in the chapters on capital, money and credit, ownership, and the psychology of capitalism—somewhat feeble and not a particularly good example of objectivity in approach to the social-science field. In a world of bristling examples of rule by a self-styled élite, some readers will be too skeptical of integrity to accept Thorndike's faith in rule by the élite—an undertone in much of the discussion. Many will find, however, that the chapters on law and government include numerous stimulating suggestions for possible objective studies in the field and that they embody a dynamic plea for loosening tradition so that findings of such studies may be incorporated into practice.

The author deserves much credit for interest and effort in pushing the methods of science into fields of human relationship, thereby hoping to substitute reliable predictions for the guesses—more or less astute—which often prevail. To indicate the possibilities of improving the predictive capacity of the social sciences, Thorndike compares the current predictability in some social sciences with that in an older astrology or alchemy. In places the discussion might have been condensed, for example, chapters ii and xii, particularly if one considers the suitability of a thousand-page book for "thinking" lay readers. Perhaps, too, for such readers less use might have been made of mathematical and scientific symbols. However, most students of human relations and of social institutions will profit substantially from contact with at least part of the chapters.

HAROLD H. PUNKE

*Georgia State Womans College
Valdosta, Georgia*

TWO STUDIES OF READING.—A new textbook on remedial reading¹ has been written to serve as a guide for the regular classroom teacher in diagnosing read-

¹ Edward William Dolch, *A Manual for Remedial Reading*. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1939. Pp. x+166. \$2.00.

ing difficulties and in establishing remedial measures. The author makes it clear that he does not intend the book to be used as a basis for procedure in reading clinics. The chief values of the material are that it is compact in form and that it makes use of most of the approaches which have been used by experimentalists in dealing with problems in reading. An important part of the discussion has to do with the critical evaluation of test results, of eye-movement records, and of the use of the metronoscope. Especially valuable are the cautions which are given to teachers for using such results. However, it seems to the reviewer that, when the author begins his discussion of results which are obtained for diagnostic purposes by the use of particular tests, he does not employ the same precautions that he has suggested for the use of teachers.

A second book, *Reading with Clues*,¹ is made up of a series of highly interesting short stories and editorials. The material relates to present-day life and is written in present-day style. The author proceeds on the assumption that most, if not all, children can be interested in reading if they are presented with the proper reading material. It seems to the reviewer that the book includes many selections which will attract the interest of most high-school pupils, including poor readers. In addition to the reading selections, the book gives a discussion of the short story and of plans for studying the material in each division. After each selection appears a series of questions which are intended to give the pupils clues in understanding the passage. The emphasis which Dolch's book lays on the value of interest in the reading of high-school pupils, on the value of easy and convenient reading material, and on the relation between reading and study gives point to Buell and Strawinski's textbook.

The two books supplement each other in some degree and may well be carefully studied by any high-school teacher who becomes interested in the problems of reading.

C. T. GRAY

University of Texas

ADOLESCENTS AND THEIR SOCIAL BEHAVIOR.—A merit of many recent efforts to improve the secondary-school program is the aim to reach present and pressing living needs of the pupils. There is an ever-increasing recognition, resulting from conferences of skilled and sympathetic teachers with individual pupils and from comprehensive group studies of youth, that these problems go much beyond the academic setting of the classroom, with its attendant concerns of attendance, study, and progress ratings, and even beyond the more informal concerns of pupil activities. Chief among the realistic problems uncovered by the studies are the fears and frustrations of adolescents in matters of personality development. How to make one's self popular, how to get a steady friend of the opposite sex, how to learn more about sex, what to do to improve personal appearance, and what to say at a party are problems of youth which are fre-

¹ Leonard W. Buell and William E. Strawinski, *Reading with Clues*. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1940. Pp. x+460.

quently discounted or left for "muddling through" by parents and teachers but which are revealed as indeed realistic and urgent to the young people themselves. The present review deals with materials particularly designed to assist in guiding youth to solutions of their more pressing social problems.

The manners that young people should employ in typical social situations form the bases of a book by Boykin.¹ The work contains eighteen chapters, preceded by an introduction by Thomas H. Briggs and a foreword by the author and followed by an index. The illustrations are informal, at times assuming cartoon form. Lists of exercises and sets of annotated references follow each chapter. The phases of etiquette treated cover a wide range of the activities of youth, including such matters as clothing, "dating," driving, house parties, smoking, table manners, and travel by airplane. Altogether, the book is very readable and should find a wide sphere of usefulness among young people both in and out of school.

Another book on social behavior is presented by Goodrich.² It contains twelve chapters covering such topics as being a good mixer, talking effectively, extending and accepting hospitality, home courtesies, behavior in public, informal correspondence, and business relations. One chapter is devoted to relevant readings. A foreword and a comprehensive list of sources precede, and an index follows, the main content. The book is illustrated with many informal and effective cuts. Statements are frequently and unobtrusively supported by quotations and references to the lives of famous people. The style is nontechnical and attractive, and the book should serve effectively as a textbook or reference work in those areas of the high school which deal with social guidance.

A third treatment of social customs for youth is a book by Ryan.³ Like the preceding volumes here reviewed, it discusses problems of poise in social situations, consideration for others (including one's family), improving conversation, and winning youthful friends. The contents include a preface by the author, fourteen chapters, a bibliography, and an index. The final chapter contains a series of charts for rating one's self in significant phases of "wise" living. The illustrations are both attractive and pertinent, ranging from "before-and-after" photographs to cartoons. This book should find extensive use both for school guidance and for extra-school reading of high-school pupils.

It is impossible to read the books here reviewed without sensing an increasingly sympathetic attitude of teachers and other workers with youth toward the purely personal longings and experiences of our young people of high-school age. The many similarities of all three volumes in content, illustrations, and

¹ Eleanor Boykin, *This Way, Please: A Book of Manners*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. xii+336. \$1.40.

² Laurence B. Goodrich, *Living with Others: A Book on Social Conduct*. New York: American Book Co., 1939. Pp. x+294.

³ Mildred Graves Ryan, *Cues for You: Guidance on Manners, Appearance, and Personality Growth*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. x+300. \$1.50.

style are evidence of the far-reaching influences of recent studies of current youth interests, modes of expression, and activities. The authors successfully avoid preachiness and evidence tolerance for youthful viewpoints without hedging in advocacy of appropriate standards of social behavior. Some readers may feel that certain of the social situations discussed are so far beyond the attainment of underprivileged boys and girls as to cause in themselves an additional source of frustration, but such possibilities should be more than offset by the challenge which glimpses of hitherto unsensed amenities of high-grade living would provide for American youth.

The appearance of three textbooks dealing with realistic problems of personality development, it may be repeated, is a hopeful sign of a new era in the school's treatment of youth. It is to be hoped, in view of the readability of these volumes, that their influence will extend beyond pupils and teachers to parents, to the end that the status of the adolescent as a responsible member of the family will also be advanced.

PAUL R. PIERCE

*Wells High School
Chicago, Illinois*

SURVEYING WORLD-HISTORY.—The summarization of the recorded story of man is a difficult task. The person who attempts it is forced to select from all history the movements that are worth the attention of the citizen of today, and then he must make these intelligible and understandable to people living in a world fundamentally different from any past age. Instructors who have been called on to teach a survey course in the history of civilization realize the dearth of suitable textbook materials that will serve as a bare outline for study.

The authors of the textbook under consideration¹ have outlined the materials which they feel should be of most value to pupils pursuing such a course. They have divided the book into fifty-two chapters. The Introduction contains materials on prehistoric man. The first seventeen chapters (241 pages) follow the story of man from ancient Mesopotamia to the fall of the western Roman Empire. Chapters xviii–xxvi, inclusive (107 pages), are on the Middle Ages. The Renaissance and the Reformation are treated in the next ten chapters and cover 134 pages. From the expansion of Europe to the fall of Napoleon takes nine chapters and 110 pages. The Industrial Revolution; liberalism in the nineteenth century; nationalism in Italy, Germany, and the Balkans; culture of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries; modern imperialism; and the First World War and post-war Europe to last September complete the book. In addition to this material a reading list for each chapter is included at the end of the book. No questions or other types of study guides are included. The few illustrations consist of pictures of pieces of art, famous buildings, or leading personalities.

¹ Charles Edward Smith and Lynn M. Case, *A Short History of Western Civilization*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. xxii+816. \$4.00.

From this description one might think that the textbook has no special merit. However, a reading brings a great deal of satisfaction. The style is simple and straightforward. It makes the history of each period understandable and interesting. Political history and military history are interwoven in the social and economic fabric. The authors kept in mind not only that they had a long story to tell but that they must continually be answering the question "Why?" This method of handling modern history should give students as clear an understanding as possible of the modern shape of things. The short chapters on the Industrial Revolution and on imperialism are particularly good.

The volume has the shortcoming that any such work must inevitably have. The factual skeleton has to be cut to the minimum. Great movements can be pictured only in their general outlines. Many situations that should be treated in great detail have to be passed over. In general, though, the authors have presented a clear, interesting, and readable account of the history of the world. It should be helpful to students and teachers.

W. FRANCIS ENGLISH

*Carrollton High School
Carrollton, Missouri*

HOW BUSINESS OPERATES IN OUR PROFIT ECONOMY.—A publication¹ written primarily for the secondary-school level is concerned with finding out and understanding how business operates, not with why it does not function more efficiently or why some other system does or does not work so well. The emphasis is on the *what* of business as contrasted with the *why*. A full chapter is taken to discuss "profit" as the motivating force in business. It is pointed out that the boy selling magazines would not face the rebuffs which are a part of his task unless he earned nickels and dimes for the energy expended.

For the purposes of discussion, business is classified in three main divisions: (1) that in which income is received from services; (2) that in which merchandise is bought and sold; (3) that in which raw materials are bought, mined, and fabricated or manufactured, and then sold. Money, transportation, and communication are characterized as the three arms which throughout have paralleled and facilitated the development and the growth of business.

The first part of the book traces the organization of business enterprise from the small shopkeeper to the modern corporation. Familiar illustrations to show the improvement in quality and the decrease in cost resulting from large-scale production are drawn from the automotive, radio, and household-appliance fields. A discussion of corporate organization and ownership is followed by related chapters on corporation finance, the security markets, protective measures, the marketing of commodities, the function of insurance, consumer credit, and the business of banking.

¹ Humphrey B. Neill, in collaboration with Howard M. Cool, *Understanding American Business*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. x+448. \$1.92.

The internal organization and departmental relations within a business, the function of manufacturing, how industrial products are distributed, the place of the middleman, the contribution of the retailer, and competition—the life and death of trade—are among the topics included in the second section. Consumer co-operatives are discussed briefly in the same chapter with chain stores. Attention is given to the function of advertising and how it has served to stimulate business and at the same time to benefit consumers through reduced costs.

Part III is concerned with changes that are occurring in business and industry (including the service and the entertainment fields), transportation and communication, the use of power, trends in primary consumer goods, and agricultural production.

While some of the chapter titles suggest heavy topics, the discussions throughout are worded in a direct, clear, readable style that is easily followed. Any economic or technical terms used are, for the most part, well defined. The typography is excellent, and a number of pertinent illustrations are shown. Each chapter is concluded with well-arranged questions and suggestive discussion topics. Few supplementary references are given. Because of space limitations, some of the supplementary topics are covered rather briefly.

Written by authors closely associated with the National Better Business Bureau, the book has a definite bias supporting current business practices, with a minimum of criticism. However, both for its excellent descriptions and for its arguments in favor of free enterprise under the capitalistic-profit system, this publication may well be recommended as reference material for use in high-school classes in social studies and business.

ERNEST A. ZELLIOT

Public Schools
Des Moines, Iowa

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

BLANCHARD, VAUGHN S., and COLLINS, LAURENTINE B. *A Modern Physical Education Program for Boys and Girls*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1940. Pp. xviii+350. \$2.00.

BOUCHER, CHAUNCEY SAMUEL. *The Chicago College Plan*. Revised and Enlarged after Ten Years' Operation of the Plan, by A. J. Brumbaugh. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xiv+414. \$3.00.

COLE, STEWART G. *Liberal Education in a Democracy: A Charter for the American College*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1940. Pp. viii+310. \$3.00.

DETJEN, MARY E. FORD, and DETJEN, ERVIN W. *Home Room Guidance Programs for the Junior High School Years*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940. Pp. xvi+510. \$1.90.

DOUGLASS, AUBREY A. *The American School System: A Survey of the Principles and Practices of Education*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1940 (revised). Pp. xviii+746. \$3.00.

Educating for Peace. A Report of the Committee on International Relations of the National Council of Teachers of English. Edited by Ida T. Jacobs and John J. DeBoer. A Publication of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xvi+276. \$1.50.

GLUECK, SHELDON and ELEANOR. *Juvenile Delinquents Grown Up*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1940. Pp. viii+330. \$2.50.

HAWLEY, GERTRUDE. *An Anatomical Analysis of Sports*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1940. Pp. x+192. \$3.00.

HECK, ARCH O. *The Education of Exceptional Children: Its Challenge to Teachers, Parents, and Laymen*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xviii+536. \$3.75.

LANGE, PAUL WILLIAM. *The Administration of Free Textbooks in City School Systems*. Chicago: Private Edition, Distributed by the University of Chicago Libraries, 1940. Pp. viii+166.

LINDQUIST, E. F. *Statistical Analysis in Educational Research*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940. Pp. xii+266.

MASON, CARLETON D. *Adaptations of Instruction to Individual Differences in the Preparation of Teachers in Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 793. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. xiv+280. \$2.50.

Mathematics in General Education. A Report of the Committee on the Function of Mathematics in General Education for the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. Progressive Education Association Publications. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xiv+424. \$2.75.

MERRY, FRIEDA KIEFER, and MERRY, RALPH VICKERS. *From Infancy to Adolescence: An Introduction to Child Development*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1940. Pp. xviii+330. \$2.00.

MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. *School Administration: Its Development, Principles, and Future in the United States*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940. Pp. xviii+930. \$3.50.

MORRISON, HENRY C. *The Curriculum of the Common School: From the Beginning of the Primary School to the End of the Junior College*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xiv+682. \$4.00.

NEWMAYER, S. WEIR. *First Aids in Reading Difficulties*. Philadelphia: North American Printing Co., 1940. Pp. xiv+162. \$2.00.

The Place of Mathematics in Secondary Education. The Final Report of the Joint Commission of the Mathematical Association of America and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. xvi+254. \$1.25.

RUSSELL, JOHN DALE, and JUDD, CHARLES H. *The American Educational System: An Introduction to Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940. Pp. xvi+554. \$2.25.

SUPER, DONALD E. *Avocational Interest Patterns: A Study in the Psychology of Avocations*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1940. Pp. xiv+148. \$2.25.

THORNDIKE, E. L. *Human Nature and the Social Order*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. xx+1020.

TIFFIN, JOSEPH; KNIGHT, FREDERIC B.; and JOSEY, CHARLES CONANT. *The Psychology of Normal People*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. xvi+512. \$2.75.

WILEY, GEORGE M., JR. *The Redirection of Secondary Education: A Social Interpretation*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. viii+494. \$2.50.

WILLIAMSON, E. G., and HAHN, M. E. *Introduction to High School Counseling*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. x+314. \$3.00.

WITMER, HELEN LELAND. *Psychiatric Clinics for Children: With Special Reference to State Programs*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1940. Pp. xx+438. \$2.50.

ZACHRY, CAROLINE B., in collaboration with MARGARET LIGHTY. *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence*. For the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. Progressive Education Association Publications. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xvi+564. \$3.00.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BEAUCHAMP, WILBUR L., MAYFIELD, JOHN C., and WEST, JOE YOUNG. *Everyday Problems in Science*. Basic Studies in Science. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1940. Pp. xvi+752. \$1.72.

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